

# **Financing and Delivery of Education Services in Eastern and Southern Africa**

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**The Impact of Cost-Sharing in Education: An Assessment of the Financing and Delivery of Post-Primary Education Services in Zambia.**

THE IMPACT OF COST-SHARING IN EDUCATION:  
AN ASSESSMENT OF THE FINANCING AND  
DELIVERY OF POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION  
SERVICES IN UGANDA\*<sup>1</sup>

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## CHAPTER ONE

### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Contextual Framework

When Uganda got her independence in 1962, the country had one of the most vigorous economies in sub-Saharan Africa. Favoured with a good climate and fertile soil, Uganda has a booming agricultural sector providing both sufficient food and earning the country large foreign exchange. The manufacturing sector supplied the economy with basis inputs and consumer goods and was also a source of foreign exchange earnings through the export of textiles and copper. On top of export earnings financing the country's import requirements, they also created a current account surplus. Fiscal and monetary management was sound making the domestic savings rate to average about 15 percent of GDP. Uganda also had one of the most effective communication network in Africa.

Because of good economic and public management performance, Uganda had one of the best education system in Africa despite the fact that school enrolment was still low. During that time schools had well constructed permanent and furnished buildings. They were equipped with all the needed scholastic materials, classrooms, laboratories, workshops, libraries and dormitories for boarding students. Schools also had adequate staff and staff housing. The Ministry of Education would also support any project in schools.

The emergence of Amin regime and the ensuing of civil strife resulted in a tremendous loss of human life and the reverse of the economic and social progress attained since independence. Economic mismanagement and deterioration of professional standards followed as skilled personnel fled the country. Between 1970 and 1980 the country's GDP declined by about 25 percent, imports by 50 percent and exports by 60 percent. This decline was accompanied by an inflation averaging above 70 percent. The situation continued unabated till mid

1980s. By 1986 government expenditure on education real terms was 27 percent of the 1970s despite increase in number of schools. Although there has been some improvement in the economy since 1986 when the National Resistance Movement assumed power, Uganda with a per capita income of under US \$170 is one of the poorest countries in the world.

The present poor economic performance and the requirement of Structural Adjustment Programs has meant declining public spending on education. And in order to raise the required education finance, Uganda has been argued to adopt cost recovery methods. Underlying these methods is the assumption that the private sector would assume the responsibility public delivering the service. Although there has been some increase in private involvement in education this assumption has not fully materialized in Uganda.

At present there are several concerns about the delivery, financing and management of educational services in the country. Despite the massive expansion in number of schools and enrolments at primary and secondary levels since 1980s there has not been necessary facilities, instructional materials and trained teachers to keep pace with the growing students population. Secondly, the cost of education has considerably increased over the years, while government contribution has remained very low so increasing drop-outs and lowering the quality of education. Thirdly, there is inefficiency in management at all levels of education leading to wastage of resources, indiscipline, lack of accountability and demoralisation of the unright staff. Fourthly, the disparities between rural and urban areas as well as regional imbalances in the delivery of educational services have increased over the years.

Most studies on education services in Uganda have mainly focused on delivery. They include: Kulazikulabe (1987), Odoma (1987), Lwanga (1987), Mulassanyi (1988), Iiukor (1989), Abo (1990), Fagoire (1991),

Kissa (1991), Ochen-Onono (1991), Odeke (1991), Okii-Ouma (1991), Owiny (1991), Rugambwa (1991), Rwakaikara (1991) and Wakoma (1991). A few studies have also been done on management; (Opon 1986; Bbuye, 1988; Wolwa, 1987; Bamazire, 1987; Barugahara, 1987; Etoori, 1989; Katusabe, 1989; Kirungi-Karindirizi, 1989; Nsubuga, 1991, Nanyalo, 1991; Kasaja, 1991 and Okello (1991).

Of all the studies on delivery of educational services in Uganda none investigated the proportionate roles played by the public and private sectors and only Mulassanyi (1988), Ssekamwa (1989) Kagoire (1981), Babeiha (1991) and Oki-Ouma (1991) studied policy. Further, only Bakeiha (1991) actually studied policy in relation to distribution of schools. Although he forced on the divisive consequences of allowing religious organisation to compete through school building, his findings confirm increased accessibility to education as a result of the competition. But his study does not tell us the exact implications for equity. Further, it was restricted to Kabale which is known for religious rivalry and yet no comparison was made with other parts of the country. Ng'ong'ah (1991) on the other hand compared the performance of trained and untrained teachers and expressed concern over the "crippling situation facing Uganda's educational system" which is dominated by untrained teachers. He did not, however, consider the extent to which the teachers are untrained in Uganda. Owiny's (1991) study among the Karamojongs reflected the inappropriateness of the education system to pastoralists. Although he concludes that the pastoral situation in Karamoja "greatly hampers enrolment in schools" he does not answer the question of how educational services should best be delivered to such people and what education it should actually be.

Most studies on management suggest administrative problems in Uganda school's and institutions yet staff development programmes seem

not to be very useful in public institutions (Opon, 1986) and Etoori, (1989). What kind of training and support is required in Uganda to improve the management of education institutions? Katusaabe's (1989) study is also very important administration and drop-outs in schools. His methodology was however not clear and so no conclusions can be made about it. Supervision which usually lacks in Uganda schools is also mentioned as a factor in reducing management competence in schools (Kirungi - Karindiriza, 1989).

Some studies have focused on parents and teachers association. Barugahara (1987) studied the effectiveness of the Parents Teachers Association (PTAs) activities in education and his findings give a very good picture of their effectiveness from both the teacher's and management committee's perspectives of the studied primary schools. He confirms their significant role and potential to take up more responsibilities. Barugahara's study did not however consult the parents who complain about the high fees imposed by the PTA leadership. There is need to investigate the dynamics of PTAs in order to identify ways of making them not democratic (Lubowa 1994). Drametu, (1990) made a comparative study of the role of the Teachers Association in Kenya and Uganda in education policy making and planning in East Africa and found that in Uganda Teachers do not have much influence in educational management. Their potential of sharing the responsibility is therefore minimal.

Turning to education financing, studies are equally diversified. While Nanyalo (1991) gives the World Food Programmes as one example of the potential of international support in financing education in Uganda, such support is not very beneficial as rarely do they establish up sustainability in financing. Moreover Nanyalo further urges that kind of support does not bring about equity in education. Nsubuga - Kibuuka's (1991) study, like that of Kasaija (1991) only

emphasizes the importance of increasing education finance. However, this may not be the solution since there is also lack of financial management skills among Headmasters and even Bursars. Candy, 1989; Mugisha, 1991 and Okello, 1991. These skills can however be found among parents and according to Mugisha's (1991) study the PTA had even taken over the budgeting role in Bushenyi schools. There are also a number of studies that support interest in popular participation in education at various times. They include Wandira (1972), Ssekamwa and Lugumba (1973), Hartwell (1973) Kasozi (1979) and Passi (1988).

The major limitation of all the previous studies is that none of them has a comprehensive and multidisciplinary approach in terms of methodology and data analysis that this study envisages. Moreover none of them focused on withdrawal of government from delivering educational services. The study intends to do this pioneer work in a multidisciplinary manner.

## 1.2 Statement of Research Problem

Available evidence suggests that while inappropriate government regulations, may increase the cost of provision and therefore reduce its access to the poor, unguided Structural Adjustment Programmes often do exactly the same if not worse. It is suggested that governments should only provide the basic infrastructures and inputs that cannot be effectively provided by private individuals and organisations, how and why is education being provided and what innovative ways can lead to an institutional environment that can guide the division of responsibility among key players so as to lower the education costs, improve its quality and increase its access in Uganda?

The main questions considered in this research specifically focusing on Post-primary education are therefore:

- (i) How is the current level of government support in the delivery and financing of education? To what extent is it adequate for the service?
- (ii) What alternatives to public support have evolved to secure delivery and management of education in the country. How effective are these alternatives?
- (iii) What new system can safeguard equity and guarantee sustainability? What roles can be assigned to the key players in this process: government, private, community and NGOs. What form of partnerships should develop among these players? What should be its content in order to optimise the combination? How should the management, control and gender issues be addressed in order to secure access?

### 1.3 Research Objectives

The prime objective of this study is to recommend plausible innovative ways of financing and managing education services that will safeguard equity and guarantee sustainability to Uganda.

The specific objectives are:-

- (a) to establish the current state of affairs with respect to public financing and delivery of education;
- (b) to understand the current state of partnership between the government and other actors involved in the delivery process;
- (c) to understand the issues and describe new ways which can best address the problems of effective financing and delivery of education services in terms of equity and sustainability;
- (d) to recommend the pragmatic management process in terms of what the optimal role of each actor should be and;
- (e) to bring out any gender implications that could arise with the introduction of new financing and delivery system.

#### 1.4 Justification of the Study

This project is justified on the basis that, Structural Adjustment program has already adversely affected the efficient and equitable provision of education in Uganda due to government budget cuts. Secondly, the current liberalisation of Uganda's economy and the emphasis on the private sector automatically calls for cost recovery in education, a trend which if not carefully planned, will disadvantage the needy and girls.

Thirdly, the state is in dilemma of complying to Structural Adjustment requirements while maintaining its legitimacy through fulfilling its traditional obligation of providing education to Ugandans. There is therefore an urgent need to address these issues to the benefit of both the government and the people of Uganda so as to provide relief in the current hopeless situation.

Lastly, there is unplanned deployment of responsibilities among the actors which reduces the effectiveness of the support in education delivery. It is expected that this research effort will provide a knowledge based policy package which will inform optimal partnerships among the key players for efficient and equitable delivery of education in the country.

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2.0 METHODOLOGY

#### 2.1 Design

Financing and delivery of education is a complex issue. The investigator therefore used a multi-disciplinary approach both for data collection and analysis. Qualitative and quantitative data were collected from various sources using multiple methods including: Interviews, use of Secondary Data, Participatory Learning Sessions and Document Analysis. The study was undertaken at national, district, institutional and individual levels.

#### 2.2 Population and Sampling

Selection of parents was done using stratified multi-stage sampling from Mukono, Lowero and Mpigi districts. At the primary level, sampling was done on the basis of the three purposively selected districts randomly select two parishes from each district. The secondary sampling frame was the six selected parishes which was used to further select three hundred households with school going children. This was done on the basis of the list of households kept and updated by the Local Council Chairmen. At the tertiary level, heads of households or their spouses responded to our questions. Four Post-primary schools were purposively selected from each district for data collection from headteachers and teachers using participatory learning sessions. Some officials from the Ministry of Education, NGOs involved in Education, prominent private investors in education, politicians both at national and district levels, student organisations, Old-Boys and Girls Associations active in delivering education as well as selected PTA politicians were also selected for the study.



### 2.3 Instrumentation

Various instruments were developed and pretested for this study. Three types of questionnaires were designed. The first one was for the District Inspectors, the second for the selected head teachers, and the last one for the individual parents. An interview guide was also prepared to collect data from the key role players in education. Further, various participant learning sheduled were destroyed and pretested to guide the anthropological data collection exercise with the teachers and head teachers.

A document content analysis framework for the Government's White Paper on education was also developed to specifically assess the general attitude and policies of Government towards accessibility, equity, affordability, sustainability, private and public roles, and coordination of various actors in the education of Uganda. The column in the far left hand side is a list of the concepts in question, the next column lists the number of pages for which the concept appears in the documents, the next column lists the total number of paragraphs that each concept was given in the document, and the last column lists the emphasis each concept was given. Emphasis was indicated through checking if the concept was expressed with tone(T), in bold letters or was underlined. Every page of the White paper was read carefully using the framework outlined to note the ideas that reflect the concepts listed in the far left hand side of the table, the total number of pages, the total number of paragraphs and the importance they are given. Assumption behind this approach is that in any document important concepts are repeated throughout the pages, that they are explained in many paragraphs and emphasized either using , italics, bold print or being underlined.

## 2.4 Methods of Data Collection

Data was also collected from the ministry of education and the districts using Library Search and Interviews. An institutional analysis regarding the private-public partnership in education; its form and content; as well as its evolution over time was undertaken using various documents in the Ministry. Here the purpose was to answer the question of who does what in financing and management of education, and how well. The purpose here was to identify areas in which to improve institutional effectiveness through reallocation of responsibilities and training. Special emphasis was put on the issue of control and management in the system.

Secondary data was also compiled at the Ministry of Education and District levels so as to compare Rural/Urban differences and the roles of various actors in delivering education. Further, studies done on the subject both in the country and outside were reviewed to compare other people's findings and those emerging from the project. The review particularly sought information on willingness to pay, alternative financing and management models and the gender implications of the decline of government support.

The researcher also had informal discussions with the main key players in the delivery of education in the country. These sources provided more information on government policy and practice on equity and sustainability in education; on attitude of the key role players towards the two; their actual level and kind of support as well as their potential and willingness to increase their roles in education especially in light of greater say in the management and delivery of education. Further, the interviews also assessed their attitude towards the private sector in education and the general public attitude towards government withdraw from financing education and other education related policies.

Survey data was collected by questionnaires. The head-teachers and the second for parents. The Head teacher's questionnaire was specifically used to collect information regarding the situation on the ground about the key issues under investigation. We also used the instrument to extra information to gain a deep understanding about the various types and sources of support schools get especially outside the main stream. The parents questionnaire extracted information regarding their knowledge, attitude and response towards education finance and current withdraw of the state from the provision of education. The questionnaire especially assessed parents' potential and willingness to pay more for education in light of greater involvement in the management of schools. The questionnaire also illicited parents' solution regarding the current education crisis. Both questionnaires were administered by research assistants in a conducive atmosphere that would not hinder expression of preferences.

Anthropological participatory methods were employed, too, to assess the teachers' and headteachers' perspectives concerning issue in the delivery, financing and management of education. Sixteen schools were selected from Mukono, Mpigi and Luwero districts and the issues of our investigation put up to the teachers and headteachers separately for discussion in a participatory way so as to identify the current issues in their schools, their causes, how they cope with them and what solutions they suggest to solve them. Answers were also sought as to the way out of the dilemma.

## 2.5 Methods of Data Analysis

Data was mainly analysed qualitatively. Descriptive statistics was, however, used at various stages. The statistical package for social scientists (SPSS) was used in this analysis. On the basis of the short comings in the existing education system innovative policy

implications have been deduced to safeguard equity and guarantee sustainability.

## CHAPTER THREE

### 3.0 RESEARCH FINDINGS

#### 3.1 Demographic characteristics

The respondents for the survey were drawn for three districts. Ninety-seven Parent respondents (32.2%) were selected from Luwero District; ninety-nine (32.9%) were got from Mpigi District; and one hundred and five respondents (34.9%) were selected for Mukono District. In total three hundred and one parents were interviewed. Respondents were considered in four different age categories: seventy nine (26.2%) were 29 years and below; One hundred (33.2%) between thirty and thirty nine years of age; fifty eight (19.3%) were between forty and forty nine years of age and sixty four (21.3%) were of fifty and more years of age. Of the three hundred one respondents One hundred ninety on were Peasant farmers (63.5%), fifty one (16.9%), were Business people (16.9%) twenty one (7.0%) were teachers and thirty eight (12.6%) were involved in other occupations concerning education level sixteen (5.4%) had no education at all, one hundred eighty one (27.1%) at secondary level, eighteen (6.0%) at diploma level, and Two (0.7%) as having reached degree level. Three respondents (1.0%) were single, Two hundred Twenty one (73.4%) married, fifty two (17.3%) widowed and twenty five (8.3%) separated.

#### 3.2 Delivery of Education

##### 3.2.1 General Literacy

Just over half (54%) of Uganda's population are able to read and write. Only 20 of the 39 districts have a total literacy rates greater than 50%. Nationally, less than half (45%) of females aged 10 years and over are able to read and write. Only eight districts, all in the central region, have female literacy rates of more than 50%. (MoFF, 1991 Census). Low literacy among the population results

from low enrollment in school, high dropout rates from school and poor quality of education provided. It is generally felt that the low literacy level among the females is mainly the consequences of gender inequalities in access to education. We observe that low literacy among adult females influences the quality of parenting of their children and limits their participation in development activities. There are few opportunities for adult literacy classes in Uganda. Moreover, the largest vulnerable group, i.e, illiterate women, lack time for classes due to domestic workloads and they lack money to pay for such classes. It becomes almost impossible for women to change their situation. Oketch et al (1992) found that more women than men expressed a desire to participate in adult and literacy classes.

In Uganda Urban areas have far higher literacy rates than the rural. For the districts that we covered during our study, Kampala had the highest urban literacy, and Mpigi the highest rural and urban literacy rates, while Luwero district has both the lowest rural and urban literacy rates. Kampala and Mpigi districts are therefore expected to be more responsive to education than Mukono and Luwero districts. Males generally had a higher literacy rate than females.

Among the Districts which we studied Kampala district had the highest literacy rate (about 80%), while Mpigi was both second to Kampala in literacy rate and gender balance. Luwero and Mukono had the lowest rates and the biggest gender gaps in literacy of over 10%.

### 3.2.2 Public Provision of Education

Education is generally perceived as a key factor in determining the well being of the population. Overall, the cost of education and inequities by gender and by rural versus urban residence remains the main constraints affecting access to education. Uganda's formal education is based on seven years of primary school and six years secondary school. Vocational, technical and academic courses are also

offered through post-primary and secondary institutions. The education system is still centrally managed, although primary education is supported jointly by local district administrations. Formal and non-formal education are provided jointly by the Ministry of Education and Sports and the Ministry of Local Government. Non-governmental organisations also contribute substantially in providing education (MoES, Sector paper, 1993].

The general attitude and policies of government towards accessibility, equity, affordability, sustainability, private and public roles, and coordinating of various actors in education is interesting as illustrated below:-

**Table 1** Document Content Analysis Frame

Key Concepts				Emphasis	
	# of pages	# of par.	Tone(T)	Bold(B)	Underline(U)
Accessibility	24	26	32	16	10
Equity	24	32	28	25	15
Affordability	15	18	25	4	4
Sustainability	20	20	17	11	5
Private Role	22	23	16	13	12
Coordination	18	25	19	23	3

Government seems to be concerned about all the key variables of this study. Government is more concerned about equity, followed by access, coordination, private role and sustainability as illustrated by the emphasis demonstrated by the number of paragraphs on which the variables are repeated. The four concepts are also emphasised by tone, boldness, underlying and are repeated in a number of pages.

Of the 510 Government aided secondary schools, 400 were founded during 1980s. However over 30% of the schools had no permanent buildings nor proper laboratories, workshops or library (Oxfam and Actionaid 1996. The administration, staff room and staff housing was also minimal. The rest of the 1980s schools generally had inadequate

facilities, such as science laboratories. About 70% of the facilities were of permanent materials. Lack of regular maintenance, damage and theft calls for repair for these facilities but some of the well established pre- 1980 schools run by religious foundations have managed to keep their facilities in fairly good condition.

The quantity of education providers has been increasing although the quality has remained low. The number of teachers, tutors and lecturers were on the increase from 1980 to 1993, although as noted for other variables, the gap between those at primary and University levels was widening even more than those between primary and secondary and University. There were about 14,800 Secondary school teachers in 1990 of whom 10,700 were full time. In 1989, about 35% of secondary teachers were untrained. They are underpaid and demoralised depending on PTA levies and private tutoring to supplement their official salaries. Schools with relatively well-off parents, give superior benefits, are able to attract full time teachers with satisfactory academic backgrounds. Teachers in poorer schools have to teach in other schools or have non-teaching sources of income. The system has therefore gained very little providers increase. The changes in the education sector for the last five years have seriously affected enrollment. In general there is more male than female enrolment, while enrolment has been reducing from 1991 to 1995 the student population declines from senior one to senior four.

### 3.2.3 Civil and Private Provision

Structural Adjustment conditions in Uganda have opened up and enhanced a number of alternative mechanisms and patterns of provision to that of the state. These include: civil, and private provision. Education management based on parents-teachers' associations has also been reinforced in the country. The following sections discuss this emerging diversity of provision in the country. The religious groups



which had been socially and politically marginalised for historical reasons have seen the liberalisation process as tactical means of reverting this marginalisation by enlarging and consolidating their political bases through education. Indeed the catholics and moslems, who had been most marginalised by the protestant political ascendancy are expanding their education activities fastest. The moslems while previously in weak positions, have taken advantage of the adjustment developments to exploit their international contacts so as to strengthen their political bases through provision of education. Moslems have established their own University (The Islamic University in Uganda) at Mbale, on top of a number of primary and secondary schools, mainly to cater for moslem students that cannot be admitted to Makerere University. Although there is no open policy of descrimination against other religions, the islamic environment at the University and in administration prevents other people from joining it. Inorder to collect the historic wrongs, the University focuses on education to produce moslem teachers to teach the young moslems.

The catholics, on the other hand, transformed former Nkozi National Teachers College in 1993 into a University with enrollment of 84 students each year. The students were gender balanced although it was not by design. The Catholic University targeted the business sector and they offered a Bachelor of Business Administration and Management on top of the Bachelor of Arts Degree in Ethics and Development Studies. Each student paid US \$1683 a year but the University offered 10 scholships which covered one half of the amount paid. Enrollment was a bit closed because the admission forms were mainly obtainable from the catholic parish leaders. Although the University admitted some protestant students, from 1993 to 1996 no moslem student had been enrolled in Nkozi University.

The Seventh Day Adventist Church has also transformed Bugema theological college to secure their position too. Much as they offer Bachelor degrees in Religion and Theology, they also offer a Bachelor of Science degree in Business Administration. Although they do not discriminate against any religion, most of their students and all their staff are Adventist, they strongly subsidize their students' education through farming and in cases of really needy students they provide employment to the students to cater for their fees. Each student pays US \$490 for every one of the three terms in the academic year.

The groups which had relatively benefited through the controlled conditions have also tried to retain and perpetuate their gains by all sorts of methods. In 1992 the church of Uganda under the leadership of Namirembe diocese also established Ndejje University enrolling 172 students each year. With a 30 to 40% female enrollment. Church of Uganda too targeted education and business and offers a Bachelor of Arts in Administration and a Bachelor of Science in Business Administration. Students pay US \$500 a semester to cater for tuition and accommodation while the non-residents pay US \$350.

The public education sector in Uganda, as already discussed, has weakly developed due to the deep economic and political crisis that immediately followed independence. The poor development of this sector has further been exacerbated by the gradual withdrawal of Government from supporting the public sector education. This has been the basis for the growth of the private sector. The expansion of private provision has especially been in response to the competitive economic and political environment that has resulted from Structural Adjustment in the country. The private sector has emerged as a result of the loss of the state capacity to meaningfully employ its trained citizens. Further private schools have also accompanied the

degeneration of public education institutions in the country as higher education becomes more competitive. The emergence of the sector also has political connotations involving the campaign for self-determination especially by the founders of the individual schools. Where Public sector employment and promotion especially in good performing urban schools is increasingly becoming a privilege of the few, private schools are a political expression for those who feel they are left out. Private local investors previously running Nkumba college of commerce have converted it into a University. The University enrolls 550 students every year, 90 offering degree courses and 460 still offering other various diploma courses. The University offers almost all commerce and management courses. The degree students pay US \$555 per term, while the diploma courses pay US \$350. Namasagali College does not only offer Bachelor degree courses, it also offers Master of Business Administration degree. We note further that the opening up of especially Universities by private people is also political since this in a way represents protest against elitist University education that is extremely exclusive. Musa Body an old craftsman of Katwe, a Suburb of Kampala, has upgraded his workshop into a University-the Musa Body University of Technology Unfortunately all these Universities and many more to come are getting established without a clear policy and indeed some of them do not deserve to be called Universities.

#### 3.2.4 Enrolment in Educational Institutions.

This section discusses enrolment at various levels of post-primary education system. In 1990, there were about 250,000 secondary students, attending 510 Government aided secondary schools, and 334 registered private schools. The percentage of girls' enrolment to total enrolment decreases from 40% in S.1 to 26% in S.6, and was 37% for secondary enrolment as a whole. The Gross Enrolment Ratio of the

relevant age group was about 16% for S.1 - S.4, and only 3.3% for S.5 and S.6. While between 1980 and 1984 the gap between senior IV and Senior V students was about 10,000, this gap has been widening to the extent that in 1992 it was about 40,000. The size of enrolment increased till about 1988 when the enrolment it destabilised. The intensification of structural Adjustment in the country from 1987 could provide some explanation for this trend.

Poor learning conditions, civil disruption and war explain the decline in demand for education. In some regions the supply of education has been unable to keep up with demand, resulting in declining enrolment ratios. Where absolute enrolment have fallen, however, demand has also fallen due to low quality, the need for children's help with housework and difficulties in paying school fees and school related expenses. The rate of increase of school age population is higher than of enrolment. (World Bank 1995).

It is also noted that about 30 percent of the children in developing countries do not complete primary education. Low secondary completion rates result from high repetition and drop-out rates. On the supply side, the low completion rates may reflect problems with the quality of instruction. On the demand side, families may need children to work (for instance in agricultural production) and may withdraw children especially girls from school temporarily - leading to grade repetition. Although improving quality is paramount and the immediate priority, the long run goal should be to expand enrolment, especially of girls (World Bank, 1989). Thus improved quality and expanded enrolment in primary education imply an increase in total expenditure on the education sector as a percentage of GNP, as well, as gradual increase in the relative share of primary education in total education budgets. Available evidence shows that the average social rates of return to primary education exceed those at higher

levels of education. Consequently, while government has increased support for education (from 2% in 1992/93 to 3% in 1994/95), it is mainly targeted deliberate shift in resources towards primary education (MOFED 1996).

World Bank (1993) found girls' enrolment in Uganda primary schools to be lower, and that it was because from parents' perspective, the private economic return to girls' schooling may be lower, and the opportunity costs higher, than for boys. Parents have a stronger desire to educate sons rather than daughters, partly because sons have better employment opportunities and are expected to support parents as they get older. Among a sample of Ugandan women surveyed in 1988, 64% reported that they did not finish or go beyond primary level due to lack of school fees, while 8% discontinued their schooling due to pregnancy. There also variations in enrolment ratios among Uganda's districts and regions. On the basis of the 1989 and 1990 school consensus, the data indicate that in Uganda as a whole, enrolment increased by 3% from 1989 to 1990.

Access to education is affected by multiple factors: high education cost and household poverty, gender inequities, low literacy among the parents associated with low perceived value for education, and poor distribution of schools involving long distances for some students. In some parts of the country, public insecurity disrupts individual education and school systems through displacement, poverty and lack of teachers. High costs of education and poverty at household level are barriers to school attendance. Large families have a greater education expense to cater for every term, resulting in hard decisions about which child's school fees may not be paid.

Children may also lack interest in attending. For example, if children perform poorly at school, they become reluctant to study, find excuses for not attending and their parents become unwilling to

pay for school fees. Our findings indicate that lack of career guidance for children and adolescents influences the value they attach to education. Corporal punishment by teachers can also lead to irregular attendance and dropping out from school. It is observed that that excessive domestic work for children is especially, housework and cultivation for girls. Either it prevents the girls which affects performance by keeping them too busy to study after school hours. In some areas, tasks for boys, such as fishing and animal grazing also interfere with education. Early involvement of children/adolescents in employment and income generation for themselves and/or their family is a substantial cause of dropout. Child and adolescent employment affects education by competing with time for school and keeping up with their studies. The district respondents pointed out that access to money at an early age, whatever the amount, also tends to entice some children away from education. During times of public insecurity, e.g., due to war or cattle raiding situations, there is often displacement and poverty; education becomes a lower priority than survival for families. Natural disasters like drought and famine also affect school attendance. In Karamoja and Soroti, where drought is a recurrent problem, school attendance is strongly linked to availability of food at school.

A quantitative analysis of inequities of female education shows that at any level of school system, the proportion of females is less than that of males; 30% at lower secondary (O) level are girls and 20% at upper secondary (A) level (Kwesiga, 1993). Gender inequities in domestic work and payment of school fees, plus cultural and religious expectations for early marriage of girls result in many girls dropping out of school. Attendance for girls is further compromised by adolescent pregnancy, whether caused by boy age-mate, teachers or sugar daddies. Girls who get pregnant while in school are required

to drop out and are not allowed to re-enroll at the same school after delivery.

Negative attitudes towards women and value of female education are a significant factor in the lower achievement, attainment, and enrolment rates of girls in schools. Girls education has the beneficial effect of postponing marriage and first birth, and therefore contributes positively to the reduction of adolescent pregnancy and high fertility. It has been argued that female education is still most important investment that a country can make. (World Bank, 1993). However, educating girls is not sufficient; other forms of gender inequity against women, e.g, cultural, and legal, also need to be addressed. Loss of parents and lack of support from the extended family reduce the chances of orphaned children attending school. The number of orphans in school has been growing since 1989. In the 1991 census of children in primary school, 9.5% were orphans and 1.5% were disabled children. (MoES, Statistical abstracts, 1994). Similar proportions are expected at Post-Primary level. School attendance by disabled children is limited by stigmatization, negative attitudes, and misconceptions of their physical and mental abilities. Key informants mentioned that such attitudes also affect even the able-bodied children of physically handicapped parents. PTA costs per student are higher in urban than in rural areas. Schools and teachers in rural areas have more difficulty in raising funds which contributes to a much lower educational standard in rural areas. This partly explains the proportionately low education standard in rural areas. There are also proportionally more unqualified teachers in rural areas than urban areas. Vocational training centres and opportunities for adult literacy courses are also less available in the rural areas (MoES, sector paper, 1993).

### 3.2.5 Education Quality in Uganda.

Key Players both in the private and public sector feel that the quality of education is poor. There is a widespread lack of teachers and relatively few of the available teachers are trained. The curriculum is perceived as inappropriate, outdated and inadequately supported with teachers. School facilities are run down, mostly from poor construction and lack of maintenance. The following sections focused on the quality of education in the country. But the education system in Uganda is currently undergoing major reforms following the endorsement of the Education White Paper by the Parliament. The main thrust of the Education Reform Programme is to increase access, equity and quality of education especially at the primary level. By increasing the physical facilities, making the curriculum more relevant to the development needs, increasing availability of instructional materials, having well trained and motivated teachers and improving the general management system in the schools. But inspite of the growth in the number of schools and teacher training colleges coupled with an increase in enrolment between 1980 and 1994, the resource base of the educational establishments has remained constant or fallen, thus reducing the quality of the service provided (Oxfam and Achan 1996).

### 3.2.6 Equity in Education

Education is a basic human right for all regardless of their social status, physical form mental ability, sex, birth or place of ethnic origin. But the education system in Uganda is narrow in scope, predominantly academic, selective, eliminative and elitistic thus alienating citizens from the real problems and aspiration of the masses of working Ugandans and denying such citizens the capacity to solve their own local problems and those of their nation (Government of Uganda, 1992). The system has therefore not adequately catered for



the special groups of people like mentally weak, physically handicapped special groups of people like mentally weak, physically-handicapped socially disadvantaged and those in backward areas of social groups. It is government policy to provide better access to education to women, physically and mentally handicapped, nomads, inhabitants of mountainous areas, Buruli and Islands of Buvuma, Ssesse and Kioga.

It is generally believed that formal Education introduced the negligence of women's education in Uganda and yet the system has yet not effectively redressed the imbalance in male-female education up to now. These problems are attributed to social-cultural factors of the patrilineal society leading to parents' preference to sending boys to school than girls; inadequacy and efficiency of facilities for girls which causes under enrollment of girls in co-educational schools, plus the natural physiological and psychological changes that occur in girls deterring them from competing effectively with boys. Traditional divisions of labour in homes, early involvement of girls in marriage and their vulnerability to sexual harassment and pregnancy, more pronounced social problems faced by girls compared to boys and the lack of decent and secure accommodation for girls all lead to their early ejection from school. Problems which hinder parents from sending or maintaining girls to school include absence of education opportunities, facilities and programmes for girls who drop out because of different disciplinary problems; lack of appropriate courses in secondary and tertiary institutions, insufficiency of women teachers and administrators at past primary levels of education, inadequacy of employment for women which lower girls morale, and girls inability to solve their psychological and educational problems, rigid uniform admission procedures, sensitization and absence of public education programme to guard

secure environment for women and girls' Education; lack of protection of girls and women from sexual harassment and insecure environment.

Special incentives and concessions have already been instituted to encourage more girls and women to effectively participate in education at all levels and in both the formal and non formal sectors through realistic and purposeful recognition of the long historical factors that have caused women's disadvantaged social and educational positions, so as to remove the inferior and backward social position of women. Because of the glaring disparity between the enrolment of boys and girls in both primary and secondary schools there is poor female enrolment at tertiary level and unfair relations for women in employment sectors. The inadequacy of girls facilities like sanitary and dormitory amenities as well as counselling and guidance in co-educational, secondary schools, the government formulated a policy of headship in co-educational schools in which either the head or Deputy head should be a woman. It is also striving to provide adequate facilities and opportunities for girls in co-educational post primary institutions in order to encourage their enrolment in greater numbers. Males however, dominate the two most influential responsibilities of Headteacher (86%) and Director of studies (86%). The females, on the other hand, dominated counsellors (63%) and deputy head teachers (67%) positions. The system reproduces itself within the traditional patriarchal arrangement. Moreover the men dominate the policy makers positions. Although there were some females on both the Board of Governors (34%) and Parents-Teachers-Associations (38%), they were too few compared to those on the two bodies (66% and 62% respectively). While the men dominated the PTA chair at 83%, they did so 100% in case of the stronger Board of Governors. On top of the contribution the above patterns have towards reproducing a male dominated ideology, the

system generates a situation which does not provide effective role models for the girls.

Government also provides special incentives for increased enrolment and retention of girls and women at institutions of learning. At the tertiary level girls are given an allowance of 1.5 points at admission. It is government policy to provide girls with adequate and appropriate facilities, dormitories and toilets. Courses and subjects that are more suitable and popular with girls in tertiary institutions have been introduced in Uganda. These include Women studies, Family Life Education, Food Technology and Home Economics. Girls have also been provided with more opportunities for girls in polytechnic Institutions and UTC by reserving minimum numbers of places in certain technical subjects for qualified female students.

In order to enhance equity two new national universities in the Northern and Eastern regions of Uganda has been suggested, a fully fledged Uganda Polytechnic, and the National College of Business Studies will be established to offer degree courses besides the ones it offers current technical colleges at Elgon, Lira, Kichwamba and Masaka should be developed gradually into independent polytechnic Institutions by the year 2000. The present small training schools for different paramedical subjects at Mulago will be merged into one large college of para medical studies with a view to preparing candidates for Bachelor of Science degrees in paramedical disciplines like Nursing and Midwifery; The other specialized tertiary institutions in the fields of Agriculture Veterinary Sciences, Forestry, Fisheries, Co-operatives, Lands and survey will be expanded and adequately equipped in order to enrich their offerings and capacity to admit an increased number of candidates including the privately sponsored. The Government also plans to merge Uganda colleges of Commerce and Uganda

Technical Colleges for the integration of technical and business education, opening of more opportunities for the entry to higher levels of polytechnic education and the adequate equipping and conversion into Vocational Secondary Schools of Technical and Commercial schools. Government plans to rehabilitate Masaka Technical Institute to turn it into a technical college. In due course Uganda Technical Colleges and the Uganda College of Commerce will be generally developed into Regional Polytechnic to be located at Elgon, Lira, Kichwamba and Masaka.

Uganda Polytechnic, Kyambogo well equipped to offer facilities to which the regional Polytechnic will have access to, Higher Diplomas not offered elsewhere and Bachelors degrees in Engineering, Commerce and Science subjects as well as the B.Ed degree in Education, are offered in addition to the existing ordinary and Higher Diploma programmes. In the existing Technical Institutions necessary adjustment have been made to provide adequate facilities for girls. A Teacher Training College for special Education has been established to train teachers for the handicapped in both primary and post-primary schools.

Government also plans to set community polytechnic and other vocational training centers through local communities and the private sector to cater for the training needs of the people. Ministries concerned with youth and labour is supposed to set up an inter ministerial education committee to plan and co-ordinate the development of vocational training programmes for the youth basing the youth apprenticeship on agriculture, crafts and other self-reliance, wealth-generating skills with international assistance where possible. Government with the support of the private sector will also assume full responsibility for the development of continuing or further education in Uganda through the expansion of the activities of the

Centers for Continuing Education and extension work of the Tertiary Institutions. Centre for continuing education of Makerere University has expanded its activities while community centers are being rehabilitated and transformed into Cultural Development Centers and Centers for Youth and Adult Education Programmes.

While the local authorities provide building materials and furniture to primary schools while the local communities establish and develop the schools. Beneficiaries or their parents bear fifty percent of the total cost of institutional material at the primary and secondary levels, education tax is being levied to raise funds for educational development. These funds help raise the income, adequate physical facilities, transport and special instructional materials. There is increasing support of all institutions offering special education, the Ministry of Education is taking over all units and annexes for Special education that are getting attached to normal schools and colleges. In addition special education for the deaf and the blind is slowly being established in each geographical region of the country. Government is preparing teachers for special Education, while all other teacher training colleges provide general professional instruction to enable trained teachers to detect cases of visual, hearing and other forms of impairment in ordinary schools, and to provide affected children the necessary occasional or continuous assistance.

Through different or phases adequate facilities for girls and women are being provided. The process is already in progress in the existing institutions beginning with conversion or innovative use of facilities already in existence to cater for the women's needs. Government is slowly increasing resources as the economy improves in the new approach of emphasizing pedagogical needs in the allocation of educational resources. Besides changes in admissions new causes

like "Food Technology", "Women studies", "Public Health" and "computer appreciations" are already in process at institutions like Makerere University, ITEK, and NCBS. The development plans and work at Mbarara University of Science and Technology are geared towards the same process.

Voluntary organisations are supporting special education for the handicapped and disabled children who make up an estimated 10% of the total population. The supporting of the existing Special Education units attached to Government aided normal schools and the integration of them in those schools commenced in 1992/93 and is still going on.

Between 1994 and 1997 three schools for Special Education were expected to be established in different parts of the country with the exemption of the disabled children from paying school fees.

Refugees, fishing communities, island dwellers, slum dwelling and other disadvantaged urban children, delinquents, the homeless and orphans, girls in economically backward areas; and children (orphans) of the victims of AIDS whose talents have been isolated for affirmative action. Special incentives have therefore been proposed to be provided to students from these groups to attract them to school. In areas where they live the curriculum in their schools and colleges will provide for the teaching of such subjects and courses as are relevant to their socio-economic and local environment. There are also public education campaign to encourage awareness of education for the disadvantaged. Motivation of the children from the disadvantaged groups are also made through concessions by the government. In order to include a positive attitude towards the victims of AIDS and their children there also programmes of giving anti-AIDS education to all children in educational institutions. This has reduced the spread of the AIDS and consequently limited the

demands on the national resources needed to care for AIDS victims and their orphans.

### 3.3.0 Financing of Education

#### 3.3.1 Public Financing of Education

By the 1980s, the education sector in Uganda was in deep crisis: the physical infrastructure was dilapidated, consumable requirements unmet, while the teaching personnel personnel was completely dissipated in the face of shrinking funding and the changes in the value values system promoted by barely literate military personnel. At the advent of structural adjustment programmes in 1981, the education sector therefore required a multi-prolonged strategy in three main area, the rehabilitation and expansion of facilities, raising teachers' morale and a re-orientation of values to improves the quality of education.

It has been noted that the quality of education in Uganda has been declining. And this has been attributed to the low recurrent expenditure on education. But the parents have continuously supported education to the extent that they contribute between 65 - 95% of the total funding in schools. Locally controlled expenditure was 6.4% of GDP in 1989/90, and 1.6% of GDP in 1991/92. The increase in locally controlled expenditure was directed to the primary level; secondary' share of locally controlled expenditure had gone down, reflecting the discontinuation of budgetary support for boarding and feeding. Donor disbursements in the education sector had increased from 0.2% of GDP in 1989/90 to 0.5% of GDP in 1990/91, and a budgeted 0.8% of GDP in 1992/93. Central Government financing of primary education is on an increasing trend, reaching 1.3% of GDP in the 1992/93 budget. However, it still remain low.

Table: 2 Central Government Recurrent Expenditure per student, by level

Level	1989/90(US\$ )	1990/91(US\$ )	1991/92(US\$ )
Secondary	10.87	15.29	16.32
Teacher Education	138.42	142.82	155.47
University	458.27	548.00	967.08

Secondary education received between 7 percent and 13 percent of the Government education budget. Most of the budget, 72 percent is allocated to food, board and travel. Only 27% was spent of teachers' salaries, compared to 50 - 60% spent on teachers in other African countries. Government financing must be substantially supplemented by parents through PTA charges ranging from US \$2 to US \$100 (70% for elite day schools and 90% for elite boarding schools). The variations in the PTA contributions had serious consequences for equity and for the provision of education quality and for the provision of education, quality in terms of qualified teachers, facilities, text books, learning materials and equipment.

For 1991/92, the University's budget request was for U.Shs 13.2 billion, whereas the amount approved was U.Shs 6.2 billion (0.3% of GDP) staff pay observed only 40% of Makerere's budget, compared 65 - 75% of the cost of operating a University in other countries. Low pay contributed to high vacancy and attrition rates among the academic staff. However, a number of faculties have benefited from international donations since 1986. These faculties include: Faculty of Agriculture and Forestry (USAID); Faculty of Science facilities (Japan); Faculty of Technology (Italy); Faculty of Veterinary Medicine (Germany) selected infrastructure works (European Community). It should be noted that Uganda still has an unhealthy imbalance in allocation of resources in favour of higher education. At Secondary level government 65% of the cost. Primary Education, Technical



Education and teachers education are receiving the least share of the financial resources from government (Makerere University, 1993). Thus in 1991/92, the ratios of central government spending per student among University, Secondary and Primary student was 157:3:1 (World Bank 1993).

The failure of the public sector to provide for schools created a gap which parents' organisations (PTAs) have been trying to fill. This privatisation of education, however, has led to sharp rises in school fees, thus creating high drop out rates. It is found to be worse in rural areas, parents in rural areas are most hit. While rural schools find it difficult to recruit teachers, the level of school fees as observed by Oxfarm, Novib and Action Aid (1996), still exceed the income of a rural ( school fees usually starts from US \$2). A reasonably good school charges up to Shs 300,000/= per child per school term. Cheaper schools are so crowded that normal learning is impaired and students lack basic amenities. In urban areas, many poor parents have withdrawn their children from school. This situation affects the poorest. It has been observed that in Uganda, that proliferation and constant increase in school fees has led many parents to delay the time when their children start school, to retain some of them at home and to reduce girls' attendance (Ssemogerere et al 1994). It is also observed that at the same time the quality of the service has not improved, with teachers still under - paid and books not delivered. The growing lack of adequate educational infrastructure, is traceable to diminished government expenditure on social services which in turn reflects to a greater extent the effects of current Structural Adjustment Programmes. Parents in rural Uganda whose income is inadequate cannot be expected to participate in the development of usually expensive educational infrastructure.

To make things worse, even for those who are able to make it to school, the quality of education is very low and is getting poorer throughout Uganda, there is therefore a growing generation of uneducated young men and women, some of whom besides their low productivity are turning to drinking alcohol and other forms of abuse at very young ages. Many are succumbing to AIDS.

There is a need for increase for resources to education and for a better use of resources currently allocated to the sector. While governments, donors and researchers acknowledge under-financing as a major constraint inhibiting all aspects of education, the issue of educational financing has not received enough attention like other issues in Education (English, 1994).

Teachers' salaries paid by the government continue to be well below the living wage in Uganda which necessitates headteachers to supplement teachers' official salaries with PTA funds. Since different communities and different households within communities have different financial capacities, the extremely low level of Government financing for education leads to inequity in access to education. Low teachers' salaries also lead teachers into teaching at more than one school, leaving pupils to work on their own, and watering down regular classroom teaching in order to encourage attendance at private tutoring sessions. Without extra-mural income, a teacher finds it difficult to make ends meet and he either has to resign himself to a pathetic life in society or to leave for greener pastures. In 1989 school census found that, nationwide, only 42% of classrooms were in "permanent" structures.

The largest single element in central Government Development expenditure in the recent past has been the provision of surplus food commodities in poor districts by the World Food Programme. Other activities under the Development budget included IDA IV and health

education and population education projects supported by UNICEF and UNFPA and provision of construction materials for primary schools, such as galvanised iron sheets, under PAPSCA.

### 3.3.2 Parents' Contribution

Parents contributions are of two types: "tuition" which is set by the Government and is equivalent in magnitude to the "capitation" grant provided through Ministry of Local Government, and Parent - Teacher Association (PTA) fees set by the headmaster and Board of Governors. These funds vary depending on whether the school is located in an urban or rural area, and on the socio-economic background of the parents. PTA fees ranged from U.Shs 0.5 to U.\$100 a term, and were used for paying teaching and non-teaching staff additional salaries and benefits, school construction, books, stationery and meals in boarding schools. Teachers' supplements depended upon the amount of money the PTA collected. Teachers could receive additional payments from US \$ 2.5 to US \$ 100 a month; housing could vary in quality from a dormitory to a banglow, and benefits could include land for cultivation. The variations in the amount levied through the PTA as noted above resulted in wide variations in the quality of education.

Reform of educational finance is needed in many developing countries. Current financing schemes do not generate the resources to provide formal education to all. Resources that are available are often not used efficiently. And the wealthy capture more than their share of educational benefits. Less clear are the best ways to go about reform. Arguments tend to support a strong role for either public finance or for market mechanisms. Colclough, (1993) and other scholars argue that in the absence of public financing, poor families can not afford schooling. In such cases society's scarce educational resources would be invested in those most able to learn. They also

argue that if access to education is determined by ability to pay, education will increase rather than reduce economic inequality. On the side of the market mechanisms, researchers have argued that public provision of education leads to inequity and inefficiency. That solving education finance problems requires market mechanisms to allocate educational services and a reduced role for the state. Markets will allocate resources, more efficiently than the state. Costs will be reduced and additional resources generated.

Running day schools according to government is more viable than boarding schools in view of the limited resources since, increasingly funds are being directed to non-educational costs like food other than being used for pedagogical needs (Government of Uganda, 1992). Consequently, Government advocates for all new Government aided schools to be only day schools and where boarding facilities are provided these should be funded entirely by the parents/beneficiaries. In secondary schools it is estimated that a student will need an average of 10 books at 3,600/= each; i.e.  $10 \times \text{US } \$3.6 = \text{US } \$36$  if each book is shared between two students, each student will pay US \$18. In order to facilitate effective teaching, stationery for students has been estimated to cost US \$8.9 for p.1 - P.4, US \$27.6 for P.5 - P.8 and US \$30 for secondary schools, per student per year including duplicating paper, ruled paper, exercise books, files, maths set, pens and pencils.

Details of the Estimated Unit Costs per year for primary and Secondary School (1992) in Uganda Shillings

Item	Day (US \$)	Boarding (US \$)
1. Text Books	18.00	18.00
2. Special Subjects (Music, P.E.)	4.50	4.50
3. Stationery for students	30.00	30.00
4. Tools, equipment for Vocational subjects	25.00 17.50	25.00 17.50
5. Library/teaching aids	3.00	3.50
6. School stationery	4.00	5.00
7. Co-Curricular activities	4.90	4.90
8. Maintenance of Buildings, furniture and equipment	20.00 -	25.00 45.00
9. Staff allowances	6.00	10.00
10. Boarding expenses		
11. Miscellaneous (water, electricity, etc.		
Total	132.90	188.40

Both parents (school fees) and Government (Capitation grant) contribute \$66.45 each. Tution fees may be paid in installments of US\$ 22.15 per term for secondary schools. Government capitation grant both parents (school fees) and Government (Capitation grant contribution US\$ 66.45 and Tution fees can be paid in installments of US\$22.15 per term for secondary schools. In S.1 parents pay an extra US \$6.0 as admission fee in the first term. This money meets the costs of any breakages or losses by the student.

Pocket money (boom) and dependants' allowance in tertiary institutions were passed over to beneficiaries (from 1989/90 academic year); Government only met the normal one way transport fares, from institution to students' homes up to the end of 1990/91 academic year; thereafter, beneficiaries took over full responsibility; Government provided stationery in kind for the last time in 1989/90, and thereafter beneficiaries took full responsibility; full board cost

were to be shared and phased out in 1993/94. Starting from 1994/95, Government was supposed to meet 75% of cost, and the beneficiaries 25%; (1995/96), 50% and beneficiaries 50%; (1996/97), 25% and, beneficiaries 75%; and (1997/98), Beneficiaries to meet 100%. Although there has been expansion in private studentship Government still makes a big contribution to tertiary education.

#### 3.3.4 Willingness and Ability to pay

Evidence suggests that parents and communities have taken more of the education funding responsibility during the last ten years and that this share is a large part of the total spent on education (English, 1994). In Uganda parents contribute up to 65 - 90% of the total funding. Mobilisation of adequate financial, material and human resources for the implementation of the desired education policies has proved difficult. The cost estimations have always proved higher than the actual financial allocations made by the government to education. However, efforts have been undertaken by Ugandan government through a variety of strategies of resource mobilisation and cost sharing devices.

According to the White Paper on Education (1992) the Ugandan Government is still obliged and committed to provide the necessary expenditure required for the impact of quality education which is much related to the material inputs provided in schools and the morale and efficiency of teachers who deserve an adequate remuneration for the work they do. Parents through PTA charges have supplemented staff salaries, purchase educational materials and even built classrooms and teachers' houses. The parents unable to meet these charges have either had to withdraw their children from school which leads to their regions to economically lagging behind so perpetuating inequalities and hindering uniform social development in the country. Findings

indicate that much as parents want to educate their children, they lack finances to pay for the high school fees. This is attributed to lack or little savings and poverty of the parents. However, some people do not look at education as a priority especially those found in lake regions who prefer fishing and hunting. Some parents prefer their daughters to get married at earlier ages. Thus if user fees are to be charged, careful attention must be paid to the most vulnerable groups who are likely to suffer disproportionately (Cunnings and Riddell 1993). Richer communities can afford lavish provision, whereas very poor communities can afford little or nothing, thus widening gaps between rich and poor schools. However, fiscal austerity has led many governments to consider alternative ways of financing education, including use of community resources. Experiences in Uganda suggest that communities can and do provide schools with extensive resources. Some communities have assumed the entire burden of building, managing and financing schools. Other communities supplement government resources with voluntary cash, labour or in-kind contributions. Community contributions can heighten parents' commitment to their children's education (Bray, 1993). But rural parents whose income is already inadequate cannot be expected to participate in the development of usually expensive educational infrastructure. It has also been seen that even those who are able to make it to school, the quality of education is very low and is getting poorer throughout Uganda (Oxfam et al 1996 and Semogerere et al, 1994). However at the post primary levels, private returns are higher and parents can pay for the advanced education of their children.

### 3.0 Management of Education

#### 3.1 General overview

It is noted that because of decline in the real value of central Government financing over the past two decades and the deterioration of the central administration, control of individual secondary schools have been effectively relinquished to the head teachers and Boards of Governors and PTAs. However headteachers are generally lacking in administrative or management skills. At the district level, the District Education Officer (DEO) is the key official. At the beginning of each term the DEO receives a check from Ministry of Local Government for school supplies. Every month the head teacher go to the DEO's office to collect cash for school supplies. In addition to the "line" administrative structure the Ministry of Education also includes specialised "staff" functions, such as policy analysis, inspection, curriculum and examinations. Due to deterioration in record keeping and lack of funds for transportation, both line and staff functions are performed poorly. Under the Decentralisation programme the Ministry of Education seconds its staff to the District Local Council and these staff operate under the control and supervision of District Executive Secretary (DES). All recurrent expenditures for the Ministry are sent to the district directly.

#### 3.4.2 Management at school level

The expansion of secondary education from 65 schools in 1962 to over 500 schools by 1989 has vastly increased the responsibility for their management of the Government. In most of these established schools, enrolment have increased considerably and new schools have proliferated all over the country. The Ministry of Education also agrees that the present management procedures for secondary schools



are ineffective, and that the disparities among schools in terms of size, location and facilities demand, differentiation in responsibilities and Management styles is high. There is need for flexibility and for consideration of the increasing contribution of parents to the cost of education. In some places Boards of Governors are established to cater for the needs of a cluster of schools which are also reduce the cost of the Board meetings. In addition headteachers try to ensure that parents become more effectively and democratically involved in welfare and development activities of the school.

Boards of Governors are composed of the following: 4 nominee of the foundation body; 3 nominees of the Ministry of Education and Sports (including 1 Headteacher of a similar institutions and 2 active/retired educationalist or civil servants, one of whom should be knowledgeable in financial management DEO's proposes their names for appointment; 3 nominees of Local Councils (not necessarily from among the 9 counsellors) elected by the sub-county Local Committee on by the committee of the division in which the institution is situated; 3 representative of parents elected with highest votes by parents at a general meeting; 1 representative of the teaching staff. Employees of the Ministry of Education and Sports other than teacher cannot be members on Board of Governors although they can attend meetings as ex-officials. Each Board of Governors is constituted by fifteen members who meet together and democratically elect a chairman and Deputy chairman from among themselves. All members except the representative of the teaching staff are eligible for election. The headteacher, is the secretary and the Deputy headteacher records minutes. But these two do not have voting rights.

The education tax, unlike before, is levied as a percentage of the graduated tax to maximize collections. The local administrations

determines the local policy of distributing and administering the funds realized from the tax levy. It is the role of government to ensure that inspite of the decentralized approach to the levying of the education task, there is equitable and fair development of educational facilities, unity, stability and the overall development of the country. Efforts are being concentrated on the use of locally produced materials for which technical skills and equipment are already available, and then progressively develop the capacity to produce more and more new materials with minimal imported inputs. Government policy envesages the use of the community service scheme to provide labour and to produce materials especially for the construction of physical facilities, but external development assistance is being solicited where necessary, in order to facilitate the development of education. Local communities and the private sector have also been variously mobilized to materially supportin the provision of physical facilities and procurement of instructional materials in order to develop education in the country.

With a view to achieve the objectives of equity between sexes, co-educational schools are supposed to provide appropriate facilities for both boys and girls. Government strives to see to it that in co-educational schools where the headteacher is a man the deputy (or one of the deputies) will be a woman and vice-vasa. Local committees/councils, District Planning and Development Committee as well as District Education Committees are required to clear all new private educational institutions and ascertain their social efficiency within the view of the national needs and plans, before they can be established. No private institution can be established without this clearance.

### 3.4.3 Problems of Parents - Teachers - Associations

Parents-Teachers-Associations are school-based organisations purported to constitute all the parents, headteachers and teachers in most schools of Uganda. They operate by elected executive committees on which all the actors are represented. These committees, for which the headteacher is the secretary, are supposed to be policy bodies. In practice, however, the function of the committees is generally to approve the policies and projects which the headteachers have developed and sold to them. Consequently, the control of policy falls thus into the hands of the headteachers. This leads to loss of representation in these organisations.

Parents do not identify themselves with PTAs. When parents were asked whether they were members of Parents-Teachers-Association, only 16% accepted and 84% denied that there were members. This is rather surprising since though PTAs are voluntary, they are constituted by all the parents, teachers and headteachers. Concerning investment, 48% mentioned that they did support PTA activities and 52% said they did not. Although 64% of the parents could attend the PTA meetings at school, up to 32% reported that they just listened to what others discussed. Asked about what changes they wanted before they could fully participate in PTA meetings and other activities, 52% did not know, 32% mentioned accepting their ideas in the meetings and the rest did not want to participate in any way. The failure of these modes of provision, especially the meetings, is also attributed to lack of organisation skills by the committee members. They mentioned failure to have a clear agenda before hand and poor mobilisation of parents as major weaknesses. When asked whether the parents would accept more financial responsibilities if they were more involved in school management, 56% reported that they could not and only 44% were

prepared to contribute more. Parents-Teachers-Associations are therefore alienated for the Parents.

The convergence and crystallisation of the various interests in PTAs leads to their resentment. Because the state is threatened by popular demand for its support in education, and because it lacks the organisational and ideological capacity to effectively penetrate and run all the schools throughout the country, it relies on headteachers and teachers recruited from local social bases. By turning a blind eye on the dictatorship of these functionaries, the state, rewards them for containing the parents' demands on the state. Moreover, to be accepted by the parents they must also belong to the local institutions of ethnicity, class and religion the very institutions that produce the PTA committee executives. The political and financial weakness of the state and the strong local political bases generate dictatorship in PTA committees. Further, the middle and upper class that tend to constitute the PTA committees have the distinct interest of seeing their children successfully through the education system. They therefore make decisions on behalf of the poor parents that mainly involve tremendous rise in school dues against the will of the poor. The existence of opposing interests is the main cause of the PTA problem in Uganda.

Board of Governors are also recruited from similar institutions from which the committee members are derived and they are therefore largely incapable of effectively regulating PTA activities. Moreover, many times PTA executive members also belong to Board of Governors/Management committees. The cooperation of the members of the Board of governors with the PTA committees also has additional advantages. They include getting supply and construction tenders from schools and guaranteed admission of students introduced by these

numbers in their respective schools. The management of most schools is left to the conflicts between various interests.

Various other forms of provision have evolved in the study area. Education has become top on the political agenda and local councils at various levels have started contributing to education through mobilisation of labour and resources, fundraisings and support of Non-Government and Community Based Organisations. Individuals with resources also donate and invest in education. Although all this is positive because the efforts are community based, they still require external support if they are to be sustainable.

#### 3.4.4 Issues in Education Management

##### 3.4.4.1 The Teachers' Perspective

During the participant learning sessions with the teachers a number of issues were raised including: teachers' accommodation, lack of instructional materials, poor and delayed payments, poor performance of students, overloading teachers and student discipline. Other problems mentioned were: lack of teaching employment opportunities, poor reputation of the teaching profession, disparity in payment between graduates and diploma holders and irregularity of students' attendance.

Table 3: The Six major issues according to teachers

Problems	Frequency	Rank
Teachers' accommodation	10	1
Lack of instructional materials	9	2
Poor and delay payments	8	3
Poor performance of students	5	4
Overloading teachers	4	5
Students' discipline	2	6

There is general lack of teachers' accommodation in Uganda. The few schools that have accommodation can only house a few of their staff and moreover such accommodation is often very poor. The major causes of this problem are lack of building space and funds. Teachers blamed the government for its failure to meet its accommodation responsibility. To cope with the situation teachers shared accommodation, they rented and others were forced to reside in their own homes. In order to solve the accommodation problem, teachers suggested constructing more staff quarters and where not feasible to increase housing allowance for the staff in order to enable them rent privately. Teachers believe that the accommodation problem could be solved if the schools, government, the founding bodies and the teachers themselves worked together.

Laboratories were not equipped, text books were either not there or not enough and there was lack of teaching aids as well as games facilities mainly because there is lack of finance to buy these materials. This problem is compounded by poor management because few procured materials were either being misused or stolen. In the situation of inadequate instruction materials, students share these materials, while schools fundraise from the communities and individuals to procure a few of them. Teachers gave installation of new equipment and buying more instructional materials through the concerted effort of the government, schools and Non-Government organisations as the lasting solutions to the problem.

Only 15% of the required textbooks and instructional materials are supplied by government. There are few teachers' guides and pupils' books. Ratios of pupils per book is 4:1, but it may be as bad as 37:1 in PI. The majority of available materials are outdated (MoES, Sector paper 1993).

In the 1989 school census, only about 15% of primary schools reported having a library, but most of these libraries did not have any books. Lack of adequate instructional material means that the students' learning process is reduced to the accumulation of factual knowledge through rote memorization or copying facts from the blackboard. [World Bank, Social Sector Strategy 1993].

Here teachers complained that PTA allowances government salaries were meagre and unreliable because of bureaucracy and low contribution of both the government and parents. The little government support was attributed to government policy of not taking education as a priority and therefore not valuing the teachers. Because of poverty in rural areas, some schools have poor pupil enrolment which leads shortage of funds in the schools and irregularities in school attendance. Those who enroll either fail to pay school fees or pay in instalments. In order to cope with the above situation, schools are beginning to develop income generating projects while teachers paid PTA according to their needs in some schools. Teachers also do part-time teaching in neighbouring schools and coaching is widely, though quietly, practiced. Some teachers are also involved in private business while some schools have set up cooperative schemes for the teachers.

Teachers suggested various solutions but the most important was that the government should increase the teachers salaries and pay them promptly. Teachers are calling upon government to make education a real priority and to reward the teachers accordingly. They also suggested that school with poor enrolment should advertise better to attract students in order to generate more money. Income generating activities were also encouraged; while school management should also be improved by encouraging headteachers to go for more training. According to the teachers, they should be offered more to start income generating projects and they should all be up-graded. They

suggested that PTA should be increased and while the founding bodies should contribute more to the schools. They emphasized the decentralization of financial management while Founding bodies, Parents, the government, NGOs and the School itself should all work together to solve the problem of teachers payments.

Students' performance has declined in schools due to poor school administration. Late coming is another problem attributed to long distances between students' homes and the schools. Indiscipline among students and absenteeism are also seen to be responsible for poor performance in schools. Schools are putting more effort in improving student performance. They counsel and guide students while stubborn students are disciplined. Students are encouraged to revise their notes seriously and to borrow text books from their friend. As solutions to this problem, teachers suggested that students should be sensitized about the value of education, schools should also mobilise funds to acquire necessary teaching materials, while the school administration should only admit better students. Stubborn students should be expelled to discourage others from bad behaviour.

Teachers felt that they were over worked due to the scarcity of teaching personnel and high student teacher ratios. Teachers would work beyond normal working hours to cope with the work but they felt that the solutions to the problem are to admit a limited number of students and to raise teachers salaries so as to attract and retain more teachers in the service across the country. Schools teachers complained indiscipline among students was leading to irregular attendance in school and class. Students escape from schools during school time and there is growing absenteeism in schools. As mentioned earlier this contributed to the problem of poor performance. Teachers felt indiscipline due to poor backgrounds of the students and parents' failure to discipline their children. To cope with this indiscipline



the schools apply strict disciplinary measures like suspension and caning. Admitting better disciplined students and participation of the parents and teachers in disciplining students were the suggested solutions. A number of other issues were raised by the teachers including failure to be absorbed by government schools.

To cope with this situation they teach in private schools, but they felt that all of them whether teaching in private or government aided schools should be paid government salaries. Another problem was the poor reputation of the teaching profession mainly caused by the few teachers who succumb to alcoholism and those male teachers who impregnate their female students. The teachers called upon headteachers and the Ministry of Education to enforce the teaching professional ethics in order to enhance their reputation. Diploma teachers also complained about the widening gap in salaries between University graduates and themselves, blaming government for remunerating University graduates relatively more than diploma holders. Headteachers therefore decided to pay PTA allowance according to the teachers' burden and not on the basis of qualification so as to increase equity in this area. Teachers suggested that diploma holders should be facilitated to upgrade so as to earn a little more. This training can be achieved through concerted efforts of the government and teachers themselves.

In some schools, students were irregular in their class attendance mainly because of their failure to pay school fees. Such students would be allowed to pay in instalments and those who could afford prompt payments would be encouraged to do so. Parents were thought instrumental in solving this problem. The final problem was that of interference in school management by the founding bodies especially regarding religious behaviour.

#### 3.4.4.2 The Headteachers' Perspectives

During the participant learning sessions with the headteachers, the following major issues were identified: lack of facilities, the teachers' payments were poor and unreliable, shortages of school funds, shortage of accommodation for the teachers, high drop-outs and pregnancies and lack of qualified teachers. Other issues identified were pressure for vacancies in good performing schools, high rate of absenteeism among students, indiscipline of students (especially by those from well to do families), interference from the founders and administrative wrangles. (Table 4).

Table 4: The major school management issues according to headteachers

Problems	Scores/Frequency	Rank
Lack of facilities	9	1
Teachers' payments	6	3
School funds	7	2
Accommodation	5	4
Dropouts and Pregnancies	4	5
Lack of qualified teachers	3	6

Most schools had limited teaching space, administrative offices, laboratory equipment, text books and teaching materials due to limited finance, mismanagement, lack of expansion space while some of the buildings and equipment were old and dilapidated. Schools therefore encouraged sharing equipment among students and teachers. Some schools resorted to the double session system, while some used special rooms (like dinning rooms) as classrooms. Other schools resisted increase in enrolment in case of excessive demand for vacancies. Students were encouraged to use personal textbooks and to share the few the teachers could provide. Some facilities were made to serve a multi-purpose role for instance a director's office as a staff room and a book store. In some schools old buildings were being

rehabilitated while in others they were hiring from neighbouring schools for classroom blocks and administrative offices. As solutions, the head teachers suggested putting up more buildings and that the government, NGOs, old students and the community should assist schools in providing text books schools and other scholastic facilities - like installing new equipment especially laboratory equipment.

There is a general shortage of funds in Ugandan schools because of the little support from the Government, delayed payments of fees and payment of fees in installments which sometimes would not be settled. Delays and non-payment are attributed to the parents' poverty. Schools are also increasingly facing the problem of forgeries. Students forge bankslips which may lead to heavy losses to the schools. To cope with the above problem, schools borrow from other Institutions and in the case of forging bankslips the concerned culprits are taken to courts of law. Some schools are involved in income generating projects like farming. To facilitate parents to pay school dues they were allowed to pay in installments. In a few instances students encouraged to do manual work at school in return for school fees (this is normally done in the evenings and weekends and also during the long vacations). The headteachers suggested that schools should get more financial support from the government, parents should promptly pay school dues, schools should encourage income generating projects and in order for parents to be able to pay school dues in time they should focus more on income generating activities. But they strongly emphasized that the government should invest more in schools.

Headteachers were concerned about teachers, poor and unreliable payments. They complained about the administration of teachers salaries that led to delays in payment and some teachers being not

paid at all for a long time. They attributed this to the carelessness of the administrative personnel dealing with salaries and government failure to make education a priority. The most schools headteachers therefore advance those teachers whose payments are delayed from PTA generated resources. Teachers are also encouraged to operate income generating projects and to part-time in other schools, while they continue to be paid PTA allowances to top up their salaries. Some schools also provide free meals, sugar and milk to teachers. Headteachers called upon the Ministry of Education and government in general to seriously consider the plight teachers. The government should give teachers fair and prompt payments. Income generating projects were also recommended for the teachers and schools. Government should assist in this area. PTA should be increased and teachers should be upgraded and their salaries increased, thereafter. They also recommended decentralization of financial management in education.

There is general lack of staff accommodation in Ugandan schools due to lack of funds to construct staff building and to rent houses for the teachers. Government does not adequately support housing projects in the schools. Teachers are provided with housing allowances as a way to cope with the problem. Some share rented rooms and the few available houses. Teachers coming from far are rented for in the neighbourhoods which accommodation may be shared. The solutions suggested included constructing more houses for staff accommodation, a call to government to assist in providing finance for building staff quarters and increasing housing allowance.

Headteachers reported high drop outs and pregnancies among the girls attributed to financial constraints and lack of sex education for students. The students who would get pregnant are either helped to go to other schools or sent away. Schools were also provide family

socially and economically. Students were encouraged to work for school fees especially in the evenings and during holidays. They suggested sensitizing parents about the value of education.

It was reported that the discipline of the students was not good. This was perceived to be due to lack of counselling and guidance for among students and also because of the experience they get by reading and watching panographic literature. Schools suspended the culprits, punished by use of manual labour or caning and imposed strict rules and regulations on the students and had formed disciplinary committees which were doing counselling and disciplinary action. The solutions suggested were to improve the school management system and involve the parents and religious institutions in disciplinary actions and counselling of students.

Headteachers also expressed concern over founders' interference in school management. Founding bodies felt the schools were theirs and therefore wanted to control them. This interference would be reported to the police while keeping the Ministry of Education informed. Headteachers suggested that people from such organisations should be sensitized by the schools and government regarding their limits in school management. Some schools were also faced with administration wrangles because of desire for power and wealth. Such schools operate closely with lawyers to settle disputes.

Uganda's education system faces a number of problems including uneven and irrational distribution of schools throughout the country, the over crowded classrooms in some areas and under utilised facilities in others, inadequate supply of trained teachers aggravated by high rates of teacher attrition due to poor conditions of service and the limited access to secondary schools among others. There is need for better planning and more equitable distribution of educational facilities in terms of school buildings, text books and

trained teachers to match with the national goal of achieving universal primary education some time in the future.

Local authorities have more responsibility for education; through the district and urban authorities which guide their Sub County Education Committees in planning for educational development in their respective areas. It is expected that more and better equipped schools will be opened in the out-skirt of towns to alleviate over-crowding currently experienced in the town centre schools and that schools will be optimally located to ensure that there is a school within a walking distance of four kilometres from the child's home. We also hope that there will not be more than fifty pupils in a class in a secondary school. Decentralisation is highly commendable since it enables parents and local authorities to participate more in the running of schools. However, the Ministry of Education on top of curriculum quality control, periodic reviews, training and certification of teachers, determination of grants for education to be given to local authorities for salaries, pensions and subsidies to disadvantaged areas, procurement of imported educational and building materials and planning, should contribute more to the running of schools in financial terms.

District and urban authorities are also responsible for providing drinking water, provision and maintenance of good sanitary conditions at each school, provision of facilities and organisational capacity for the provision of mid day meal for children. A lot of effort has been invested in this area although alot more needs to be done. In some schools parents provide food stuffs - either in kind or by payment of money or both. Local administrators provide regular information to Board of Governors while the Inspectors of Education ensures that the revised Board of Governors policy is strictly implemented.

### 3.5.5 Public Policy on Tertiary Education Management

Government has for long had no national policy on higher education in Uganda. The National council for higher Education (NICHE) has been proposed for systematic co-ordination and implementation of policies relating to higher education. Under the National Council for higher Education will be the following units; A joint Admissions Board for Universities and other institutions of Higher Education; An examinations Board for institutions other than universities; a Bureau of Academic and professional standards; and a Board for Human Resource Development. The council will mainly formulate policy guidelines for tertiary education for consideration by the Ministry of Education Planning, evaluate of training courses and programmes pursued in the institutions of tertiary institutions and the equitable funding for tertiary institutions, coordinate admissions to universities and other tertiary institutions, examine and Certify of candidates in non-university institutions which are recognized and affiliated to the National Council for higher Education, validate of various qualifications and ascertain the credibility of Institutions awarding different kinds of certificates.

Other responsibilities to be under taken by the NCHE include: Ensuring that adequate facilities and opportunities for career guidance and counselling are provided at every tertiary institution; initiation co-ordination and management of local and over seas scholarships; Facilitating and coordinating research and publication of books, journal, research papers and other instructional materials, in liaison with other relevant institutions; Ensuring that in all tertiary institutions Development studies and community service scheme are taught as compulsory disciplines, and that all teaching programmes are related to the national ideology; Advising and Guiding government on the procedure an actual process of setting up private tertiary

institutions and appraising as well as determining the validity of proposals for the intended institutions in line with their feasibility and in conformity with national needs and plans of development.

The Joint Examinations Board for Institutions other than the universities was established starting from 1992. It first co-operated the staff and facilities of UNEB, Makerere University the Institute of Teacher Education, Kyambogo, Uganda Polytechnic Kyambogo. National College of Business studies, Mbarara University of Science and Technology etc. The approach was also enabled the Board gain experience and minimise costs. Thus it was the government's hope that by the end of phase one the Board would be fully established. The Bureau of Academic and professional standard was to start functioning during 1992/93 with a hope of it requiring limited development and additional recurrent expenditure in the budget of the Ministry of Education and Sports. While the Board of Human Resource Development was to start during 1992/93, and be full fledged by 1996/97, the council (NCHE) was expected to become a full fledged institution only by the end of phase two with the expansion and strengthening continuing during phase two after becoming operational by the end of phase one.

There is great concern over the existence of the unplanned nature of establishment and location of institutions of higher education in the country. It is therefore Government policy to stop this practice and pursue setting up new institutions of higher learning in a well planned, systematic and properly co-ordinated manner. The new policy is that new tertiary level institutions will only be established following sufficient justification base on given considerations as: the number of students completing Uganda Advanced Certificate of Education, the capacity of the existing institutions of higher education, manpower requirements of both public and private sectors,



national development needs and the capacity of the concerned founding body wherever it is applicable. Tertiary institutions that are intended to develop to university or polytechnic level are advised and encouraged to develop gradually, starting with the status of colleges affiliated to the established universities and polytechnics. Government plans to establishing two new national universities, one in the northern region and the other in the eastern region of Uganda, but with one of the two to be developed as a full pledged polytechnic up to the same status as that of the new Uganda Polytechnic, Kyambogo (UPK) to offer degree courses besides the existing ordinary and Higher Diploma Programmes usually found to be offered in the present polytechnic.

The existing physical resources of higher Educational institutions are quite inadequate. Political instability and lack of adequate financial resources in the past have resulted in gross negligence in the maintenance of physical plants and other facilities, like lecture and seminar rooms, laboratories, libraries, workshops, theater, research facilities, staff offices and houses. Consequently, Government contributed to the rehabilitation of physical plants, and the provision of appropriate instructional materials, manpower, and financial resources in order to maintain high academic and professional standards in tertiary institutions.

### 3.5.0 Traditional and emerging gender issues in Education

We found interesting gender issues in education. Females have been found to generally perform worse than the males in the schools we studied. The behaviour of female student is an outcome of her perceptions of the various options available to her and of which alternatives best meet her priorities at the time. These are the processes of female socialisation starting from home to define her

choice later in the labour market, her life cycle, and her adaptation and reaction to work and experiences. To be a girl in Uganda is socially distinct from being a boy and the two are constructed into "femininity" and "musculinity". "Musculinity" values that are supported include aggressiveness, ambition, confidence and intellect. Femininity is the exact opposite of these qualities and the girls therefore grow up to conform to these opposite values.

The home socialises and transforms boys and girls into noticeable differences by the time they join schools. The schools further enhance this socialisation which reaches the peak at secondary level. At this level girls begin to conform to the dominant ideological categories of femininity. These provide them with expectations about their future role in society, which for the vast majority means to expect nothing much more than marriage and home-making. It is then that they really begin to underperform. Further, there are definite social processes of reproduction which routinely reproduces girls in their dominated positions, and schools as sexist structures, are related to that simple practice employed by society. In practice sex ascriptions are used as a basis of the pedagogical process. This strengthens the ascribed groups that creates the dual labour market for the whole of its working life. In schools the clearly visible social difference of sex as an ascriptive categorization device has been institutionalized because of the wider embedded mechanism of ideological reproduction. Students are subjected to the ideology of the specific social order which further qualifies them for different roles they will play in society. In schools, as already mentioned, ideological formation tells the individual students what exists, who they are, how the world is and how they are related to that world. This way students are allocated different kinds and amounts of identity, trust and every day knowledge. This visibility of modes of

life, the actual relationship of performance to reward, the existence, extent and character of exploitation and power are all structured in various gender-specific models of ideological formation.

Further, ideology in schools tells what is possible, providing varying types and qualities of self-confidence and ambition and different levels of aspiration. It tells what is right and wrong, good and bad, thereby determining not only conceptions of legitimacy of power, but also work ethics, notions of leisure and views of interpersonal relationships. We therefore conclude that within the overall configuration, two significant factors determine the girl orientation to education. These are the structure of the dual labour market and the ideological practices which maintain and reproduces it. There are a number of other reasons why girls do not "fight" back. They may be broadly ignorant and disinterested in the form of subordination they are under, but they are in many cases not aware of alternative modes of social organisation. They may also feel powerless to the influence of the existing state of affairs. This ignorance, disinterest and lack of confidence is not simply given, it is generated by definite social processes and form part of the overall process of social reproduction.

#### 4.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

##### 4.1 Summary

Uganda is in a debt crisis and due to the cost of reimbursement of this debt, there has been a critical lack of public resources available for allocation to education. Further, because of civil wars and invasions especially in the eastern and Northern parts of Uganda, there have been overwhelming practical barriers to the actual expansion of access to education because of the risks in attending school in some of these areas. It is generally assumed however that when adequate supply of education is provided in terms of quantity, location and quality, then parents will enrol their children. Although this may be true in the long run, it does not certainly follow in the short run. The present study has found surprising under-utilisation of education facilities where a significant number of children remain non-enrolled. Among the reasons behind the low demand for education is the inappropriateness of traditional public institutions of education. The content and organisation of formal education do not reflect the realities of survival of the local people in their settings. A large number of school leavers must work to live. Some attend school partially and continue work at the same time. Public education needs to adopt its content and organisation to implement flexible hours, and adjusting the contents and methods to the needs and characteristics of the school leavers.

During the last two decades both the quality of inputs per student resulting from massive In-planned expansion of schools and enrolment in the early eighties and a marked squeeze in the resources for education in real terms springing from the devastating effects of war, civil strife, diminishing production in all sectors, worsening terms of trade, growing public debt and the declining values of the Uganda shilling. The share of the Ministry of Education has also been

low thus aggravating the problem. Even these scarce financial resources have only been used for non-pedagogical purposes like boarding and other living expenses of students at tertiary level and to less extent at secondary level in form of capitation grant instead of using it for important instructional costs which have remained unfulfilled, especially at primary level. Teachers' low salaries have also made the problem worse by forcing them to seek additional employment to supplement their incomes leaving their duties to a group of under qualified and untrained teachers. This has adversely affected the education quality.

The low resources available in the past can be attributed to poor performance of the economy and collection of low Government revenue compared to the GDP of the country. However some progress has been registered through the rehabilitation and reconstruction of industries, roads and other productive sectors which have helped in achieving higher targets of G.D.P for example 1989-90 the country attained a record growth of 7.2% in G.D.P and this is expected to reach 16-20% in the near future when government economic policies and taxation measures begin to show results. This then raises the hope for incase government resources thus available for education. But even with these anticipated projections the government revenue is not expected to be adequate 5 to 7 years time. Therefore Government will still have to continue relying greatly on other sources especially those from parents and the community; reallocating available needs within educational institutions and external development assistance in order to support development projects in education especially the instruction quality.

Our findings indicate that parents living in rural areas have contributed all they can afford, (materially and financially) towards school construction, acquiring of equipment and text books) and

shifting more education financial responsibilities from government to the families and communities has become unbearable and more and more parents are stopping sending their children to school. Increasing the parents' management responsibility in education is not likely to increase their effective financial support. Parents are willing to pay for their children's school fees but most are not able to do so. Where the school environment is fitting, teachers unqualified and text books inadequate the poor quality discourages parents from paying school fees. Demand for education has also reduced at primary level because of the increasing cost of education at secondary level and cost sharing at tertiary level. This is because for most parents the main motivating factors is to send children higher up in education. The demand for primary schooling is largely conditioned by their expectation for post-primary education opportunities.

Findings indicating that a number of measures should be put in place in order to improve education in Uganda. According to parents the most important one is putting in place a system which attracts and retains qualified teachers in schools especially in rural areas by paying them adequately and promptly. Parents also wish to see better management at the school, district and ministerial levels. They are mainly concerned about corruption in these circles and lack of routine supervision in schools. Rampant Poverty also disables parents. In order for the communities to play a bigger role in education financing therefore, parents suggested government and NGOs should assist communities to develop income generating activities and projects to raise their incomes so as to contribute sufficiently towards education. They further underscored the need for donors and government to extensively fund education because education requires heavy investment. They suggested various policy, legislative and educative measures for increasing access to education. Government

should design a deliberate policy to identify and support vulnerable groups in the communities including orphans, the needy, the girls and the mentally weak. Government can either pay school fees for the orphans, establish special schools for orphans for them. Students coming from needy families should equally be assisted while the mentally weak and disabled who be provided with the education that is compatible with their abilities. Another suggestion was for government to implement the policy of education for all through the free primary education policy while putting in place legislative measures that would empower councils do take up the education matter more seriously. The parents suggested that local councils should put up punitive measures against those parents that deliberately refuse to take their children to school, while sensitizing the illiterate parents about the importance of education. Programmes to train local people in the various income generating skills are also required especially for women.

Findings indicate that significant changes are taking place in the delivery, management and financing of Uganda education services. Although the number of new education institutions at various levels may appear appreciable, Structural Adjustment Programmes and the penetration of capital into education have set into motion forces that ensures privileged perpetuation of a small section of Ugandans while decentering the vast majority of the society.

Much as there is a certain commonality in what is taught, differences in the management, financing and teaching-learning patterns brought about by the state's absence in education favour the privileged while impeding the generation of autonomous modes of thought and behaviour among the poor. Consequently, as a result of high fees, children from poor families get denied the opportunities of acquiring quality education. One form of education prepares for

All in all the parents wanted the government to spearhead the development of education. Government should increase its support to education, ensure that the people's incomes are enhanced and take keen interest in the management of education by getting more involved in the running of private schools. Parents feel cheated when they are overtaxed and fail to see tangible investments to which their tax money has been put, this money should be seen to be invested in social services especially education. Mobilization of adequate financial, material and human resources for the process of implementation of the desired education policies has proved difficult. The cost estimations have always proved higher than the actual financial allocations made by the government education. However efforts have been undertaken by Government through a variety of strategies of resource between the estimated costs and actual financial allocations to provide considerably reasonable assistance to schools.

Parents have supplemented staff salaries, purchased educational materials and even built classrooms and teachers houses. The parents unable to meet these charges have either had to withdraw their children from school or have had their regions economically lagging behind thus the whole incident perpetuating inequalities of educational opportunities and hindering inform social development in the country. Education finances are being mobilised through savings from the recurrent expenditure on education through cuts on the recurrent expenditure commitment in the education sector (Boom, transport and related expenses), local community contributions, additional taxes for education, Government grants in aid, launching of income generating activities in educational institutions and External Grants and loans.

Merit based on examinations written in English has also contributed in pushing away the majority of rural and urban poor



students especially girls. This is because these students' day-to-day experiences are mainly in vernaculars and compared to the students born in middle-class families, they have a leveled ground in class. Higher Education is therefore getting restricted to the urban reach. Social disequilibrium in education is further provided by the mission of education in a peripheral country. The schooling system prepares individuals to occupy positions in adult life and moulds personalities so that they will be able to fit in with metropole's requirements. Equally, education transmits those norms and values which provide similarity of conscience while at the same time forming the basis for diversity of social cooperation and division of labour in the economy. This is very important in as far as it teaches individuals the aptitudes necessary for future occupation in a system where social solidarity depends on both value consensus and on specialised division of labour. Differential training and promotion in the education system therefore selects individuals for various occupational opportunities.

#### 4.3 Recommendations

1) Although the government had proposed radical resource reallocation especially from higher to primary education, because of fear of aggravating tensions, government has tended to opt for the short term popular policies to the effect that most of the support continue to go to higher education. Experience in Uganda and elsewhere in the world has shown that under favourable economic environments, total public expenditure on education grows. Since Uganda has recorded steady economic growth it is promising that government contribution to the sector will grow. Nonetheless new resources will be required above the budget of the Ministry of Education. The government needs to mobilise resources in all

government departments involved in, aspects of human development. This will also need expanded participation of non-government agencies, communities, families and individuals. More external support is required to significantly transform education. External support can also be directed towards off-setting Uganda's debts. Since under structural adjustment external support is being directed towards strategic sectors of development, balanced socio-economic policy, and economic and political changes, this investment is likely to yield appropriate patterns of economic growth which is healthy for education.

2) There has been suggestions for reducing unit costs in education. Cutting salary costs and more intensive use of personnel has been done. But the low real value of teachers' salaries has affected their morale and motivation which has consequently reduced the quality of education in schools. There is need to improve the living conditions of teachers. Careful planning and extra funding of teachers can improve efficiency in education through more intensive use of personnel. Increasing pupil/teacher ratios contrary to the new Ministry's policy could be the most viable option in order to reduce costs. Increasing pupil/teacher in urban areas which is already high may reduce quality, while in rural areas because of the sparse population, increasing staffing ratios cannot be incurred without additional costs of transporting children.

3) To improve efficiency in the use of educational resources, the government has adopted various delivery systems. Increasing the number of days of instruction per year. The semester system has been introduced at University level without political difficulties. Although increasing the effective school days increases cost, it is more cost effective since teachers continue to be paid. Government has invested in distance education. Various courses have been

introduced at Makerere under distance education including Bachelor of Commerce of Education and Bachelor of Education and Bachelor of Business education. More courses need to be organised because this system seems to be advantages of the economies of scale. This requires, however, enhanced management capacity to organise the delivery system.

4) There has also been expansion of non-formal education which has encouraged community involvement in the collection and management of resources and hence the diversification of sources of financing and delivery systems without depending upon the Ministry of Education budget. There is however need to invest back some of the resources in order to secure the development of an institutional structure of sufficient delivery capacity and encourage initiatives in non formal education.

5) Uganda continues to be bedeviled by civil wars especially in eastern and Northern. Because of these wars government has been spending a lot of money on security and defence. This can partly explain why the share of education has been generally small. More efforts should be invested in resolving the political conflicts especially in the northern region of the country in order to reduce money spent on security. The money saved could be invested in education.

6) It has been government position to shift public resources from higher to primary education. The basis for this is that the public rate of return is highest at primary level and lowest at higher level and vice-versa. This makes public investment most effective, at primary level. Allocating fewer resources to higher education and more to primary means affecting a small number of students in higher education to save a large number of primary school children. Such a change in the allocation of resources is more equitable and more

efficient. The government is still having an upstand task to control student and lecturers' movements which are well coordinated and politically powerful in Uganda. There is need to accompany cuts in higher education budget with policies of appropriate employment to enable students earn fees.

7) Beyond access, equity and achievement, education should be viewed in an expanded perspective involving the broadening and strengthening of the means and scope of basic education, the enhancing of the learning environment and the strengthening of partnership. The learning environment should be characterised by good health and nutrition supportive families and communities and providing of learning essential. This is achieved through strengthening the paternal partnership through sectoral systems (health, education, agriculture, gender) and across institutions (government, NGOs, CBOs, private and public enterprises). Lessons should be learned from NGOs like OXFAM which have managed to develop and consolidate partnership with various organisations and across sectors for purposes of enhancing the learning environment. On top of building the management capacity at central administration levels in the areas of access, equity and quality in education, there is need to build capacity to search the best power balance between the central and local administrative centres. This should be done through seeking to develop the organisational status and attitudes as well as administrative structures and procedures required for more collaborative, participatory processes of development.

8) While access, equity and quality of education have been negatively achieved by cost sharing. There are certain positive outcomes out of the new funding methodology. It is important to emphasize however that education cannot be left to the market mechanisms as it is a social responsibility for both public and

private actors in which the international community also has a moral obligation to assist especially in crucial areas like Primary education and at tertiary levels where payment may be a problem. There is need to develop and consolidate partnerships and alliances among all actors in education so as to bring about optional combination. Education should be given priority on both economic and political grounds. The political implication resulting from the failure of the education system and the political causes of the same are usually overlooked. Uganda government should take special efforts to win back the northern part of the country and the eastern so as to reduce political instability. There is need for politics that promotes democracy, social development, participation and economic growth. There is primary necessity to develop sustainable economic growth based on intensifying the economic policies of liberalization and privatisation.

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## Appendix 1

### COMPARATIVE AREAS IN EDUCATION: THE UGANDAN EXPERIENCE:

On top of paying the official school fees which is usually low in Uganda, Parents make big financial contributions through Parents Teachers Association (PTA) funds. In 1991 for example parents contributed 74% of the developmental budgets and 56% of the recurrent expenditures for secondly schools (MOES, Planning Unit Statistical Abstracts, 1994). And because of this big contribution 94.7% of the interviewed parents expressed concern over the high and rising demand for school dues.

Parents in Uganda are generally willing to pay for their childrens' school fees but as the cost of education and the demand for them to pay more for education increases, they are becoming less and less able to pay the school dues. Certainly, the high level of non-schooling and the high drop-out rates from schools and institutions in Uganda is attributed to the high dues.

Concerning cost-sharing, parents in Uganda have been supporting the biggest part of primary and Post-primary education all through the era of social policy collapse. Although the decline in government support has meant that students and their parents have to contribute more especially at the tertiary level. Parents see cost-sharing and institutional at this level as an expansion of opportunities for the students that could previously not have access to education although more poor students are loosing access to education.

While Government should support the expansion of infrastructure, improve teachers salaries and provide key instructional materials, on the one hand, communities, parents, students, and other members should pay for food, uniform and general maintenance of education facilities on the other. There is however an urgent need for the Government, Non-Government Organisations and donor organisation to

support income generating projects across the country in order to reduce poverty in the communities to enable them to support education. Government should also fully support orphans education, because their number is increasing due to the AIDS scourge.

The parents are not satisfied with education management in Uganda. They are disgusted by the dictatorship in Parents Teachers Associations and by head teacher's corruption. They are also concerned about corruption at the various levels of education management. In Uganda all schools have parents teachers associations which directly link them to the communities. These institutions have a high potential of enhancing community participation in education although many times they block.

Post-Primary education is bedeviled by a number of problems. Lack of facilities, poor teachers salaries and an urgent need, therefore, to reform them, inadequate accommodation for them are among the most important problems in Uganda's education. The number of teachers, tutors, lecturers and institution have been increasing since 1980s but their relative numbers have been significantly reducing from lower levels upwards and over time. The quality of teachers also very low-for instance 65% of secondary teachers in Uganda are trained.

Education administrators feel parents are willing to pay for their children's education but that they have contributed whatever they can and that majority cannot contribute any more. Parents are clear about their responsibility to pay for their children's fees but they believe that Government should contribute towards teacher's better salaries, infrastructural developments and provision of key instructional materials. In order to Squeeze more resources from the parents, head teachers send the students back home till they pay for school dues.

There are also new developments in Ugandas education. Poor performance, students indiscipline and over loading of teachers are emerging management problems in Uganda's Post-Primary education. Improving basic education, strict discipline, admitting a limited number of students per class and training more teachers, deploying them sand rewarding them to attract them into the systems are the possible solutions to these problems.

Most of the Universities in Uganda are owned by religious organisations and private bodies. The Catholic Church, Church of Uganda, the Moslems and the Seventh Day Adventist have each established a University. They have also accelerated their establishment of other lower institutions. Many more new and old schools are getting controlled by the religious bodies. They are also about four private universities in Uganda and a growing number of private schools.

While cost sharing policies advocate rolling back of the state in Post-Primary Education, findings indicate that this leads to problems of access, quality and equality. It is therefore recommended that with out over centralizing the management of education, government should spear head education governance in the country by creating an institutional environment that attracts community support for education, establishing institutions, coordination and quality control, provision of instructional materials, training and remunerating teachers. But Poverty reducing strategies are most fundamental for education progress.



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THE IMPACT OF COST-SHARING IN EDUCATION: AN ASSESSMENT OF  
THE  
FINANCING AND DELIVERY OF BASIC EDUCATION  
SERVICES IN TANZANIA

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**FINAL REPORT**

BY

R.G. MUTAKYAHWA

*ESAURP, JUNE 1997*

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## **List of Abbreviations**

CEF	Community Education Fund
CSEE	Certificate of Secondary Education Examination
DEO	District Education Officer
ESACS	Eastern and Southern African Training and Development Consultancy Services
ESAURP	Eastern and Southern African Universities Research Programme
GDP	Gross domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GSES	Girls secondary Education Support
IDRC	International Development Research Council
MOEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
MST&HE	Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education
NER	Net Enrolment Ratio
NETF	National Education Trust Fund
REO	Regional Education Officer
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SSA	Sub Saharan Africa
TTC	Teachers Training College
UPE	Universal Primary Education
URT	United Republic of Tanzania



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## Abstract

Various interested groups and actors involved in education and training, including the government, donor agencies, private institutions and NGOs, parents, students, educators, teachers, researchers and the community at large, perceive and experience critical problems of financing and delivery of education in the country. Most of these problems emanate from constrained resources and squeezed government budgets as a consequence of the on-going economic crisis. Structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) adapted in Tanzania has raised concern over the position of certain low-income categories. There is a particular concern over the position of women and children, the urban poor, and marginal groups such as the orphans, the disabled and the handicapped. Many feel that the cutbacks initiated under SAP have been regressive in that they have hit the poor proportionately hardest. There is a strong caution that the implementation of the programmes, and consequences of non-adjustment, need to be closely monitored. Undoubtedly, this situation is not only jeopardising educational achievements attained since independence but also makes the education policy targets to be uncertain, if not unrealistic. For example, it may not be possible to achieve the planned primary school enrolment of 95% by year 2000. It is also true that some of the fundamental problems are compounded by lack of accountability, transparency and poor management of the available resources. Undoubtedly, this situation has to a large extent contributed to the present underlying weaknesses of the education delivery system. Education managers are, therefore, facing an increasingly difficult task in meeting community demands for more and better schooling with static or diminishing real resources.

However, what does not seem to be so straight forward is the course of action and solution to be taken by those in education who are trying to manage under extreme conditions. The main response to this problem of under-financing the education sector, has been to seek additional resources to supplement those provided through government budgets. This has led to the introduction of sharing of responsibilities of education expenses between the government and the beneficiaries (students and parents). Other agencies which have been mentioned to bear the costs burden of providing education services include, donor community, non-governmental organisations and the local community at large. Some of these measures, which have been outlined in the Tanzania Integrated Education and Training Policy document (MOEC/MSTHE, URT, 1993), have been tried.

At the same time it is felt that some of the measures already being used, including cost sharing, to finance education have not been critically evaluated in relation to the prevailing socio-economic and political circumstances in terms of not only quality and quantity but also, access, equity, affordability and coverage.

This study was, therefore, a response to these underlying problems. The overall objective of the study was to make an in-depth examination of the present education system with the aim of recommending alternative but feasible ways of financing, delivering and managing education services that will safeguard equity and guarantee sustainability. The study was intended to focus on the strategies to try to use the available resources efficiently on one hand, and on the other hand, to look into the ways and means of attaining optimal financing through diversification of sources of funds. At the same time, the study was intended to shed some light on the current policies and practices of financing and delivery of education relative to equity, sustainability and efficiency.

The three main methods of data collection utilised in this study included structured questionnaires, semi-structured questions, and literature review. The instruments for collecting primary data were administered to a sample of key players in the financing and delivery of basic education services.

The information was sought on schools and households. Another source of primary data was through interviews with officials of organisations sponsoring education in the country.

Visits to sampled schools and on-the-spot assessment were made in order to obtain a comprehensive picture of existing delivery systems with regard to their functioning, underlying problems, and their potentials.

A secondary source of data involved the use of literature on education, mainly contained in various reports and records and government policy documents. The data collected was keyed into the computer, processed and analysed using a statistical package known as Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS-PC).

The study has shown that there has been no marked gender differences in primary school enrolment during this period but the GER during this period remained almost constant at 74% meaning that about a quarter of children have not been going to school. The private sector accounted for about 57% of all students in secondary schools but the enrolment of 13.3% of the total primary school leavers into secondary education is still small. Girls participation in secondary education decreased with the increase of the level of education.

Schools faced the problem of high repetition and drop out rates. Truancy, early marriages and school pregnancies were the main factors behind the drop out problem.

Several schools, especially the private ones, employed a good number of untrained teachers. About 34% of all teachers in private schools had no teaching qualifications. Unqualified teaching staff together with inadequate teaching materials, poor infrastructure and insufficient funds affected student performance.

Although cost sharing in schools was regarded necessary to supplement government efforts in the provision of education services in the country, the scheme was regarded to be at the disadvantage of the poor and other underprivileged groups.

Corrective measures, including financial diversification, have been suggested in order to arrest the deteriorating state of education services in the country.

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

### **1.1 Introduction**

The development of skills and knowledge of the people of a nation, through the educational process, constitutes one of the prerequisites of national development. Education is seen as the determinant of the nature and pace of social and economic development. Education, for example reduces poverty, infant mortality and fertility. Education therefore has a significant social rate of return. Education also has benefits to the individual recipient of education. The more the education an individual gets the more productive he becomes and the more earnings opportunities he has. Investment in education, therefore, also benefits the individual i.e. private rate of return.

Convinced of the ability of education to promote economic and social development, the Government of Tanzania devoted the early years of independence to the expansion of the education sector. From independence, delivery of education services has been taken as government responsibility and policy makers have sought to extend education, like other social services, to the largely rural population of the country.

Donor agencies have played an important role in the development of Tanzania's education services, especially in the area of infrastructure. A significant part of capital for the construction educational institutions has come from external sources. In addition, some basic inputs such as textbooks and other teaching materials have been provided by donor agencies. Non-governmental organisations, particularly those associated with religious organisations, have also contributed to the development of the education sector by establishing and running schools and other training institutions. Parents and local communities, too, have played a part in the provision of education services. Through efforts of the government, donors, non-government organisations, communities and parents, significant strides have been made in the education sector.

Thirty years after independence, new concerns and problems have emerged which bring into the question of the suitability of the existing education system. Some people have argued that there is a danger that even the accomplishments and gains of the past may be eroded if there is no concerted action taken to alleviate the current constraints in the education sector. The sector is facing financial problems because of tight public budgets. This has resulted in poor quality of education, manifested by lack of teaching materials and the poor state of school infrastructures. Recognising this, the government has taken steps to arrest the situation so as to lay out a new direction for delivery, financing, managing and monitoring education.

### **1.2. Evolution of Education in Tanzania**

At independence (in 1961), Tanzania inherited a colonial economic and social sector. The education system was stratified by racial categories i.e. African, Asian and White. The quality and accessibility of African schools were poor relative to other schools. Recognising fundamental inadequacies in the colonial system, and the vast need of the population and the economy, the government sought to increase access to basic education. This was done with the support of donor agencies willing to assist the newly-independent state. The government strategy was to provide free

education services to the people. Education services were to be financed by using tax revenues and donor support.

Government commitment to the provision of free and compulsory education resulted in massive educational expansion in order to accommodate the huge numbers of children seeking places in schools. The expansion of the education service infrastructure and service provision during this period was impressive. The number of schools, especially at primary level increased dramatically and the majority of the 10,891 government primary schools now in operation were constructed during the 1970s. Similar increases were experienced in student enrolments. The number of enrollees in primary schools increased by nearly four times during the 1970s (Chart 1.1). Secondary school enrolment also increased but at a much lower pace compared to the pace at primary school level (Chart 1.2). This was due to the intended policy of rationing secondary schooling as part of the government effort to provide universal literacy and coordinate outputs from the educational system with the nation's manpower requirements.

The achievements of the 1970s could not be sustained through the 1980s. The government encountered difficulties in financing and managing the education services that had been put in place. Two main problems emerged. First was the inadequacy of funds. The inadequacy was partly due to limited sources. While the donors had been willing to finance much of the capital cost of developing the infrastructure, financing of the recurrent cost was largely left to the government which depended on a small tax base. This problem was compounded by the unfavourable import-export market (between 1976 and 1982) which placed severe financial constraints on the government coffers.

The second problem was that the expanded education facilities and related staff became difficult to manage. Managerial problems were due to financial constraints, limited transportation and communication systems in the countryside. The problems were compounded by the lack of coordination because of the changing lines of responsibility and authority between central and local governments which were re-instituted in 1983 after having been abolished a decade earlier. For example, national plans, which were established by ministries in Dar es Salaam, were to be implemented by local government. Unfortunately, many local governments did not have the financial and managerial capacity to run schools. Education employees too, though technically accountable to and under the supervision of ministries and regional authorities, were employed by the local governments.

There were also problems which emanated from the demand-side of education. The population grew by 2.8% annually during the 1980s. The population growth, therefore, placed pressure on the government's ability to deliver education services. In addition, graduates from the Universal Primary Education (UPE) placed severe pressure on the tightly constrained number of places in secondary schools. The increased demand for education services, therefore, was not matched with the supply of these services by the government because of its declining capacity to deliver. The stresses placed on the economy and the inability of the system to adapt to those stresses during the 1980s had negative effects on education. First, the gross enrolment rate for primary education which had climbed to 93% in 1980 fell to 74% by 1994. The number of school children who enrolled later than the minimum age of 7 years and those who left before completion of primary education increased. In 1992, for example, the average age for standard 1 was 9 years and about 20% of students in standard 1 were 11 years old. Second, the quality of education became inadequate and illiteracy rates increased from 10% in 1986 to 16% in 1992. The third effect was that girls performance in schools was lower than that of boys. In 1992, for example, 12% of girls

who sat for their Form IV examinations failed compared to only 4% of boys. Fourth, a very small proportion of children who completed primary education were admitted into secondary education. As Table 1.1 shows, the gross enrolment rate in secondary schools in Tanzania was lower than her neighbouring countries. In 1992, for example, the enrolment in Tanzania at secondary level was 5% while Zambia, Kenya and Uganda had 31%, 29% and 13%, respectively.

Severe economic constraints resulted in few resources being allocated to education for maintenance, new capital investments and quality improvements of physical facilities. The government recurrent expenditure dropped by 21% between 1990/91 and 1993/94 and the absolute value of the money earmarked for education also went down by 15% during the same period. The share of total government spending that was devoted to education, especially the MOEC has been declining yearly (Table 1.2). In 1990/91 the government spent 6.3% of its total budget on education within the MOEC but by 1993/94 the share had dropped to 3.3%. Between 1990/91 and 1994/95 the government spending on education as a share of GDP was on average 1.38% compared to 1.42% which was devoted to defence (Table 1.3).

### **1.3 Statement of the Problem**

The government and other institutions involved in the provision of education in the country are experiencing critical problems of financing, delivering and managing education. Most of these problems emanate from constrained resources and squeezed budgets for education because of the on-going economic crisis.

The Tanzanian economy as a whole has been facing hardships since 1973. The prolonged poor economic performance, along with high inflation (about 30% per annum) and high increase (3.7% per annum) have led to an overall pressure on financial resources. Competition for resources from the national budget among the sectors (including education) is getting fiercer than in the past, with the government responding by effecting cutbacks in social expenditures in order to reduce the widening gap between policy targets and the available financial resources. While the provision of education and training have been an integral part of the overall development in Tanzania since independence, the poor economic environment has increasingly made it difficult for the government to continue supporting adequately its financing and delivery to meet the stated targets in the education sector. These perpetual cutbacks have consequently resulted into chronic under-funding of the sector. Several problems and bottlenecks facing the education sector could be associated to the core problem of under-funding. Undoubtedly, this situation has to a large extent contributed to the present underlying weaknesses of the education delivery system.

A number of indicators are available to support this assertion. The process indicators which include enrolment, progression, dropout and repetition rates are not in a favourable state. The enrolment and progression rates are going down in all levels of education. In 1970, about 16% of primary school leavers were admitted for secondary education as compared to 13% in 1994. The dropout and repetition rates are however escalating. The dropout rate for standard seven increased from 9.6% in 1976 to 29% in 1972. The quality of education infrastructure is falling, school buildings are in dilapidated state, there are not enough teaching materials, teachers are underpaid and payments are irregular and uncertain. There is a never ending list of reports of the poor state of the education infrastructure and delivery system in Tanzania. For example, the MOEC, when examining the situation in primary schools for the year 1994, found out that there were on average 5 children to a desk and only 2 regions out of 20 had more than one table per teacher. The World Bank (1994) showed the magnitude of under-funding by reporting that if the 1993/94 enrolment was to expand

to universal coverage of school age children, the education budget would have to increase by 76 percent, which was beyond the scope of the national budget.

It is also true that some of the fundamental problems are actually compounded by lack of accountability, transparency and poor management of the available resources. In order to minimize managerial problems government is embarking on the decentralisation of the education system. The central government intends to relinquish some of its activities and pass them to the regional and district authorities. *The major problem, therefore, is that given the present state of under-funding (which has led to poor quality of education) and the existing poor delivery system, what new, innovative and viable mechanisms can be adopted to rectify this situation at the same time safeguarding access, equity and guarantee sustainability?*

#### **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

The general objectives of this study are summarised below:

- (a) to reveal a clear understanding of the current policies and practices of the financing and delivery of education in relation to aspects of equity, sustainability and efficiency.
- (b) to identify broader strategies that will address the difficult task of creating sustainable conditions for the operational efficiency of the education system, which will permit proper utilization of the existing resources.
- (c) to explore and recommend feasible approaches in diversifying sources of financing so as to attain optimal financing levels and financing efficiency which will sustain the delivery of education in Tanzania. This will rectify the situation of over relying on government budgets and foreign sources which are already constrained.

More specific aims of the study are as follows:

- (a) to establish the current state of affairs with respect to public financing and delivery of education;
- (b) to understand the current state of partnership that exists between the government and other actors, for example private providers, involved in the financing and delivery process;
- (c) to understand the underlying problems and prescribe feasible ways which can best address the problems of effective financing and delivery of education in terms of equity and sustainability;
- (d) to recommend improved management practices for the education process.
- (e) to reveal any gender implications and other forms of inequality in accessing education that could arise with the reforms of the existing delivery systems.

The main questions that have been considered in this research are: i) What alternatives exist for and effective delivery and management, given the inadequacy of financing education by the state? What new system could safeguard equity and guarantee sustainability? What policy options could be put into place to attain cost savings and efficiency in the existing delivery systems? What roles can be assigned to the key players involved in the process: government, community, parents and donors? Are there any gender implications which may arise from the suggested corrective measures? Is the management and control an issue in the provision of, and access to, these services? Are there effective and adequate policies for coordinating the financing and delivery of these services?



## **1.5 Justification of the Study**

The main response to this problem of under-financing the education sector, has been to seek additional resources to supplement those provided through government budgets. The measures included the introduction of sharing of education expenses between the government and the beneficiaries (students and parents). Other agencies which have been mentioned to bear the costs burden of providing education services include, donor community, non-governmental organisations, local governments and the local community at large. It is felt that some of the measures already being used, including cost sharing, to finance education have not been critically evaluated in relation to the prevailing socio-economic and political circumstances in terms of not only quality and quantity but also, access, equity, affordability and coverage.

This study was, therefore, a response to these underlying problems with the aim making an in-depth examination of the present education system so as to be able to recommend alternative but feasible ways of financing, delivering and managing education services that will safeguard equity and guarantee sustainability. The study was intended to focus on the strategies to try to use the available resources efficiently on one hand, and on the other hand, to look into the ways and means of attaining optimal financial through diversification of sources of funds. At the same time, the study was intended to shed some light on the current policies and practices of financing and delivery of education relative to equity, sustainability and efficiency.

## **1.6 Methodology of the Study**

### **1.6.1 Design and Population Characteristics**

Three main methods of data collection were utilised in this study, those including of structured questionnaires, semi-structured questions, and literature review. The instruments for collecting primary data (structured questionnaires) were administered to a sample of key players in the financing and delivery of basic education services. The information was sought on schools and households. Another source of primary data was through interviews with officials of organisations sponsoring education in the country. These included the MOEC, local authorities, education funders and providers such as the World Bank, Plan International and National Education Trust Fund.

Visits to sampled schools and on-the-spot assessment were made in order to obtain a comprehensive picture of existing delivery systems with regard to their functioning, underlying problems, and their potentials. These approaches formed the basis for obtaining the necessary primary data.

A secondary source of data involved the use of literature on education, mainly contained in government records such as the Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania (BEST), published research reports and government policy documents.

### **1.6.2 Sampling and Sample size**

Financial constraints did not allow us to cover many parts of the country. Only four regions were covered in this study: Coast, Dar es Salaam, Iringa and Morogoro. The selection of these regions has been based on the following reasons. Iringa has the highest number of private and

community owned secondary schools. Morogoro and Coast have been included in the study because they are among the test regions under the pilot projects carried out by the government under IDA credits Dar es Salaam. These projects, which are included in the Social Sector Strategy, include the **Community Education Fund (CEF)** and the **Girls Secondary Education Support (GSES)**. Two districts in each region were selected for the study on the basis of rural and urban locations.

The Institutional Questionnaire was administered to sampled primary and secondary schools. Tertiary and teacher education were left out because basic education is considered to be crucial. A list of 11,502 primary and secondary schools was compiled from the MOEC records. Two percent of the total schools (as of 1994) were targeted in this study i.e. 230 schools ( $11,502 \times 2\%$ ). Of these, 161 were to be primary schools and 69 were to be secondary schools. Stratification for the population was based on location (urban/rural), ownership and education levels. Random sampling was done to select the number of schools from each district using proportionate of government, private, community and religious schools. The period for the study was mainly between 1990 and 1994.

The Household Questionnaire was administered to sampled households in both rural and urban areas in the four regions that were selected for the study. More emphasis was on the financing of education and cost sharing schemes (including its effects on the quality of services and accessibility) and management issues. A total of 345 households were to be covered: Coast 75, Dar es Salaam 100, Iringa 95 and Morogoro 75.

### **1.6.2 Instrumentation**

#### **i) Institution Questionnaire**

The study looked at schools from a number of angles: general background information, information on students and resources, education financing, cost sharing schemes and managerial issues.

##### **a) General information**

In this section, schools were asked to provide general information on the names, addresses and the years of establishment. Information was also sought on their geographical setting (urban and rural) and the types of owners of the surveyed schools. The ownership was categorised into two main groups: government and non government schools (private, religious and community schools). These questions were considered relevant for comparison purposes regarding their performance. For example, one would like to see if there were any relationships between ownership and the availability of resources or academic performance. The location of schools was also important to see if there were differences in the financing of urban and rural schools.

##### **b) Student information**

The information sought in this section included process indicators such as enrolment growth, progression, dropout and repetition rates. These indicators were considered important in measuring the efficiency of the education sector as they adequately capture the wastage in the

system. The data was sought by gender so as to be able to see if there were any gender difference.

#### **c) School Resources Information**

Information was collected on the resources needed by the education process: money, manpower, materials and machines. Schools were requested to provide information on how they had been funded for a period of five years.

Questions on the availability and academic qualifications of teaching staff were required because of their usefulness in the assessment of the quality of education. A shortage of teachers in an institution with disproportionately large numbers of students would result in tired and overworked teachers who could not be expected to give due attention to students. On the other hand, poorly qualified teachers, even in large numbers, would not be capable to provide the desired quality of education. Other areas looked at were the availability of relevant instruction and teaching materials and the adequacy of physical facilities.

#### **d) Cost Sharing Schemes**

There is enough cost sharing taking place at primary as well as secondary levels of education between the government, parents and communities. The research team wanted to find out the current application of cost sharing in schools. Schools were asked to assess the necessity and the effectiveness of the scheme. Information was also sought on how the parents were responding to compulsory contributions set by schools or by other bodies. The results were also intended to help in giving an idea on the affordability issue i.e. parents' willingness and ability to pay such contributions. Questions on equity were raised to see if there were any negative effects to disadvantaged groups like girls and children with disabilities. The team wanted to find out the extent to which cost sharing denied some children access to education.

The definition of cost sharing in this study means the allocation of cost elements to various education providers, users, and other beneficiaries. The cost elements of education are of both capital and recurrent nature and can be direct or indirect costs. The direct costs include school fees, books, teaching materials, and staff salaries. Costs related to physical facilities such as classrooms, offices and laboratories are also part of the costs of education. Indirect cost include things like social costs and opportunity costs. In this study, only direct costs were considered as indirect costs are not easily quantified.

#### **e) Managerial issues**

In this section, the study examined the structure of education and the division of responsibilities among different groups of society. The coordination of education provided by several delivery agents was also another area of concern. In addition, school representatives were requested to point out the most critical problems in running their respective schools.

## **ii) Household Questionnaire**

### **a) Background data**

This section contained general characteristics of the household: location, age, gender and education of the respondent, size of the household and the number of dependent children. Date on the occupation and incomes of the respondents was also sought because incomes have a relationship with the ability to make financial contributions towards their children's education.

### **b) Financing of Education and Managerial Issues**

The respondents were asked how they contributed to the running of schools and the amount of money they spent towards their children's education. The parents were also asked to give their opinion on whether or not the cost sharing scheme was necessary and how poor families could be assisted. Questions were raised on the willingness and ability of parents to pay fees and other contributions. In addition, information was sought on the difficulties the parents faced in meeting their financial obligations. The respondents were asked to express their opinion on how schools should be run and managed and asked if parents and local communities should be involved in the management of schools.

## **1.7 Method of Data Collection**

It was decided that interviews would be the means of obtaining information especially from the households. Through interview it was possible for the interviewer to explain questions that respondents might interpret differently. The interview technique was, also, to ensure a far higher response rate. One limitation of the interview method is that the respondent may feel that anonymity has been lost. A respondent may be willing to provide information, say on financial matters, if a questionnaire is completed privately and mailed back. A face-to-face interview may be inhibiting, regardless of the assurances given by the interviewer. The selection of this method was made because it enabled the data collectors to have greater control over the data-gathering process and allowed the interviewer to understand in what areas the respondents experienced problems of interpretation.

The field work in the selected districts did cover 204 schools or 89% out of the target of 230. The actual number of households covered were 369 (107%) as opposed to 345 which was originally planned. The low response rates in Iringa and Coast regions were due to the inaccessibility of some parts in these two regions.

## **1.8 Data Analysis**

The data collected was keyed into the computer and processed. Data analysis was made using a statistical package known as Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS-PC). Frequencies was prepared for most of the variables in the two questionnaires. Higher statistical analysis including cross-tabulation was prepared for key pairs of relevant variables and regression analysis were used where necessary. Crosstabulations were used to find out if there was any association between different variables in the same questionnaire. Comparisons of responses from both types of respondents on similar questions were made.

### **1.9 Problems and Limitation of the Study**

In carrying out the study several problems were encountered. First, financial resources were limited. As a result, the study could not cover many parts of the country as one would have liked. Second, time was another resource constraint. This problem did not allow the team to conduct a pilot study in order to test the validity of the instruments. Third, there was a lack of records and data. Some schools and the majority of the households do not keep records for some of the required information. This was evidenced by the blanks on some questions on finance and student enrolments. Parents, too, do not keep records on how much they earn and on how much and on what items they spend their money. Another explanation for lack of data in schools is the fact that most of the financial information for public schools was not known to the heads of schools. Schools were not involved in the collection, custody and cash disbursements for most of the expenditure items. For example, salaries, teaching materials and furniture were paid directly by parent ministries and/or by local governments. At the time of the study budgets were not prepared by school authorities. Fourth, some parts in the selected districts could not be easily reached because of poor transport facilities.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **STUDENT: ENROLMENT AND OUTPUT**

#### **1.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the information collected and analyzed on students in the surveyed schools. The information included enrolment growth, progression, repetition and drop out rates. The chapter starts by looking at the characteristics of the respondents of both questionnaires.

#### **2.2 General Characteristics of the Respondents**

##### **2.2.1 Institutions/Schools**

Three quarters of the 204 schools covered by this study provided primary education and the rest provided secondary education. Of all the schools, 43% were located in rural areas and 85% were owned by the government. Community owned schools accounted for 6% while private and religious schools represented 4% and 5%, respectively. Almost all schools under this study (96%) catered for boys as well as girls and very few (13%) had boarding facilities. It was interesting to find out that none of the 29 schools surveyed in Coast region catered for only one gender. The representatives of schools, who responded to the institution questionnaire, were mainly heads of schools who accounted for 78% of 204 schools covered by this study. The high response by the heads of schools in this exercise shows the importance they attached to this study.

##### **2.2.2 Households**

369 respondents of the household questionnaire had the following characteristics. 68% lived in urban areas, 40% were females and 62% were in the 36-55 age group. In terms of educational attainment, 32% had primary education while 49% and 19% had secondary and tertiary education, respectively. As regards the status of the respondents in their respective households, 71% were heads of the households while spouses and other members of the households accounted for 17% and 12%, respectively. Almost half of the respondents were office employees and 26% were peasant farmers while 19% were engaged in business related activities. The analysis of the size of households of the respondents showed that 47% had over six members in their families, 43% had between four and six while the rest of the respondents had not more than three members. It was further observed that most of the households depended on agriculture and waged labour as their main sources of income. The monthly incomes of the majority of the respondents (85%), on average, did not exceed US \$90.

#### **2.3 Student Information**

##### **2.3.1 Enrolment Growth**

###### **i) Primary Education**

A glance at Table 2.1 depicts that, during the 1990/1994 period, primary school enrolment has been rising slowly and the participation rates between the two genders has more or less been equalized. This shows that Tanzania has attained parity in enrolment by gender at primary school level and

appears to maintain it at more or less the same level throughout the primary education cycle. The table further shows that the percentage of primary school-age children enrolled in schools in 1994 was about 74%. This meant that over a quarter (or 26%) of the children were not attending school and that about 47% of the school-age going children were not in school. The difference between GER and NER is due to the fact that most children do not enrol at the age of 7 years. According to the MOEC data for 1992, for example, out of 668,060 children enrolled in standard I only 14.4% had the age of 7 years. The age which appeared to be liked most was 9 years and accounted for 23.4% of the total enrolment. Going by this trend it is difficult, if not impossible, to achieve the UPE target of enrolling 95% of the school age going children by the year 2000 as recommended by the Tanzania National Summit on Children which was held in Dar es Salaam in June 1991. According to the projections of the

**Table 2.1 Primary Education Enrolment by Gender, 1990-1994**

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Male	1702180	1775745	1831843	1897380	1921172
Female	1671182	1731639	1767737	1835563	1872029
Total	3373362	3507384	3599580	3732943	3793201
<b>% Female</b>	<b>49.5</b>	<b>49.4</b>	<b>49.1</b>	<b>49.2</b>	<b>49.4</b>
<i>GER</i>	73.5	74.4	74.2	74.9	74.0
<i>NER</i>	54.2	53.8	54.2	53.7	52.6

Source: MOEC (BEST 1990-1994), June 1995

Task Force on Education System for the 21st Century (MOEC/MSTHE, 1993), children aged 7 years will be 923,000 by the year 2000. In order to reach the 95% target the system will need 876,850 places. This means that 203,186 new places (1994 places were 673,664) have to be created between 1994 and the year 2000. Very ambitious steps have to be taken in order to increase the places in primary schools from the current (1994) figure of 3,793,201 (MOEC, 1995) to 5,520,700, the projected enrolment in year 2000. This is an increase of 1,727,499 places or 45.5%.

## ii) Secondary Education

### a) General Picture

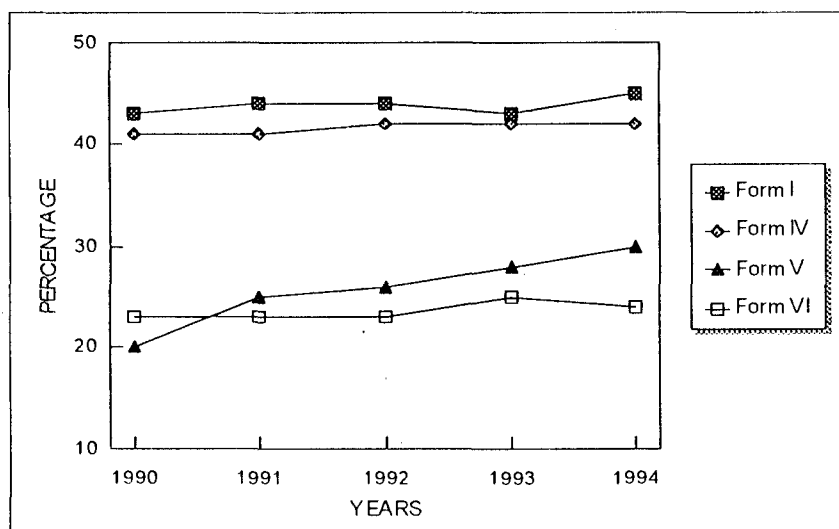
A close examination of Appendix 2 reveals that during the 1990/1994 period, secondary school enrolment rose by about 24% from 150,300 in 1990 to 186,246 in 1994. The Private sector, on average, accounted for about 57% of all students in secondary school.

### b) Girls Participation

The girls enrolment growth pattern in secondary school level is shown in Chart 2.1 and Appendix 10. It can be observed that female participation rates in secondary education are higher at lower levels (Form I) than at higher levels (Form V and VI). In 1994, for example, the participation of girls in Form I was about 46% while it was about 32% in Form V. The decline could be attributed to the problem of female dropouts to student pregnancies, truancy and early marriages (2.3.3(ii)(d)). All in all, it is encouraging to note that there has been a steady increase in the

participation of women at all levels of secondary education. For example, on average, the participation for FI to FIV has risen from 42% in 1990 to 45% in 1994 while that of FV to FVI has risen to 30% from 23% during the same period. A substantial increase of the percentage of girls in FV has been observed during this period i.e. from 20% to 32%.

**Chart 2.1: Girls Participation in Secondary by Levels, 1990/94**



A comparison between government and non-government schools shows that at lower levels women participation rates are higher in non-government schools but become lower as the level of education increases (Appendix 10). The negative change can be explained by the relatively high financial resources required by private schools without a corresponding financial ability on the part of the parents. It has been pointed out (3.3.4(i)(d)) that most of the financial requirements in private schools come from the parents as opposed to government schools which highly depend on government funds. Lack of school fees and other requirements due to low household incomes force some students to drop out of schools. The first victims of these circumstances in most of the households are girls when it comes to choose between the two genders.

## 2.3.2 Class Repetition Rates

### a) Primary Schools

Problems associated with the completion of education have been identified. The repetition and dropout rates are on the high side. On average, every year about 120,000 students enrolled in primary schools are repeaters. A glance at Appendix 11 shows that, on average, the annual repetition rates range between 2.9% and 4.5% of total students enrolled in one year and female repetition rates are slightly higher than those of boys. The highest repetition rates are for standard four to five which range between 11.4% to 17.3%. These high rates can be attributed to the examinations taken at the completion of standard four. An examination of the repetition rates by regions under this study showed that Iringa region was leading in facing this problem followed by Coast region while Dar es Salaam was the least of all (Appendix 12).



### 2.3.3 Dropout Rates

#### (i) Overall Picture of Dropouts in Primary Schools

The dropout problem is very serious in both primary and secondary schools in Tanzania. Table 2.5, which shows the trend of this problem in primary schools, reveals that between 33% and 43% of all students who joined standard I between 1984 and 1988 did not complete their primary school education. Most of the dropouts take place in standards one and four.

**Table 2.5: Dropout Rates in Primary Schools, 1990 - 1994**

STANDARD I INTAKE		STANDARD VII OUTPUT		DROPOUT	
Year	No.	Year	No.	No.	%
1984	533379	1990	306656	226723	42.5
1985	525011	1991	383427	141584	30.0
1986	522757	1992	346514	176243	33.7
1987	548631	1993	363404	185227	33.8
1988	575492	1994	370534	204958	35.6

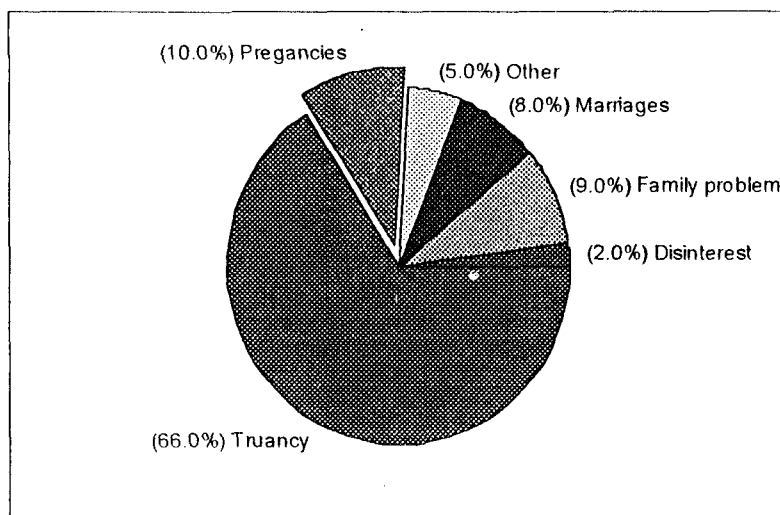
Source: MOEC (BEST 1990-1994), June 1995

#### ii) Reasons for Dropouts

##### a) General

Factors contributing to the problems of student dropouts have been spelt out by the heads of the surveyed schools. As chart 2.2 indicates, the major contributing factors are truancy (66%), student pregnancies (10%), family related problems (9%) and early marriages (8%). Other factors which influence the drop out problem in schools, include lack of interest in education due to poor school environment. Poor school environment discourages some students and makes them stop going to school and others end up starting petty businesses. Family related problems include issues like broken parental marriages. As a result, sons and daughters lack guidance from both parents. Sometimes the mothers, who in most cases have no financial ability, move with their children and this makes the concerned pupils to drop out. In other cases the fathers, who have separated from their wives and stay with their children, have no time to look after them and the children, therefore, tend to lose interest in education due to lack of proper encouragement and care from the parents.

**Chart 2.2: Reasons for Drop-Out Rates in Schools**



A regional analysis of this problem revealed that over 90% of the dropout cases in primary schools which were reported in Dar es Salaam region were mainly due to truancy. Iringa registered about 80% of the dropouts which were caused by truancy. Urban life style, lack of a close watch on children by parents, indiscipline among the children and a general decline in morals could be some factors that have contributed to truancy in the country. A poor learning environment and too much self-reliance activities in schools, which tended to cause disinterest among the students, also contributed to truancy. The problem of student pregnancies was acute in Coast region followed closely by Morogoro. The high incidence of adolescent pregnancies in these regions could be attributed to traditions and cultural behaviour in these societies.

#### **b) Male Dropouts**

When the problem of drop out was analyzed by gender the main three reasons for the male dropouts in schools were truancy, family problems and petty businesses. The seriousness of truancy differed by level of education and was more serious in primary than secondary schools (Table 2.6). Lack of interest among the pupils due to poor learning conditions and self-reliance activities, especially at lower levels, may explain the reasons for much truancy at primary level of education. Further analysis has revealed that the problem of truancy is more pronounced in urban rather than rural areas (Table 2.7). The life style and indiscipline among urban students can partly explain the high rate of truancy in schools in town centres.

The main factor influencing dropout in secondary schools was lack of school fees. More financial resources are required at secondary than at primary level of education. Because of poverty some parents are unable to meet the financial obligations as required by schools. As a result students discontinue their schooling.

**Table 2.6: Reasons for Dropouts by Gender and Education Level**

GENDER	EDUC. LEVEL	1ST REASON	2ND REASON	3RD REASON
Boys	Primary	Truancy	Family Problems	Petty businesses
	Secondary	School Fees	Lack of interest	Truancy
Girls	Primary	Pregnancy	Truancy	Family problems
	Secondary	Pregnancy	Truancy	Early marriages

Lack of interest and involvement in petty businesses among the boys at primary school level can be related to the poor and uncondusive learning environment at schools. It is mentioned later (3.3.4(i)(c)) that in order to supplement school revenues students in primary schools are engaged in income generating activities which contribute about 40% of the total financial requirements. Obviously students tend to dislike these activities and some stop going to school regularly and later are dismissed while others prefer to do petty businesses of their own rather than go to schools.

**Table 2.7 Reasons for Dropouts by Gender and Location**

GENDER	LOCATION	1ST REASON	2ND REASON	3RD REASON
BOYS	URBAN	Truancy	Family problems	Lack of interest
	RURAL	Truancy	Petty businesses	Lack of interest
GIRLS	URBAN	Pregnancy	Truancy	Early marriages
	RURAL	Pregnancy	Early marriages	Lack of interest

### **c) Female Dropouts**

Female dropouts were mainly caused by student pregnancies, truancy and early marriages. Although no comprehensive research has been done on factors contributing to pregnancies among school girls, available evidence suggest that student pregnancies could be due to the economic hardships facing the families and laxity among the parents as far as the discipline of their daughters is concerned. Student pregnancies are more pronounced in schools located in the countryside. Poverty and traditions in the society, especially those in rural areas, are some of the reasons behind early marriages among the girls pursuing secondary education. Parents tend to encourage early marriages so as to solve some financial problems by means of dowry.

### **2.3.4 Progression to Secondary Schools**

Table 2.8 shows that the percentage of students who join both private and public secondary schools is by no means small and also has declined from 15.7% in 1989 to 13.5% in 1994. A bigger proportion (about 57%) of those selected to pursue secondary education is absorbed by non-government schools and this trend is likely to continue because of the inability of the government to meet the demand. According to the Director of Secondary Education (in 1996) about 160,000 boy students sat for standard seven examinations while there were only 1,757 places for the boys in

government secondary schools in the country. This means that many more standard seven leavers will have to go to private schools for their education.

Data trends in Table 2.8 indicate that it will not be an easy task for the government to achieve its target of enrolling 15% of primary school leavers into government secondary schools by year 2000. In order to admit 15% of this output the government will need about 86,790 places (15% of 578,600 estimated primary school output: MOEC/MSTHE, 1993). This means that 62,469 new places (an increase of 257%) will be required in addition to 24,321 places available in 1994. The table further shows that the proportion of primary school leavers absorbed into government secondary schools is slightly less than 7%. With financial and other constraints facing the government, public secondary school expansion, at the expected speed (257%) so as to absorb the projected intake in the year 2000, is unlikely to be achieved.

**Table 2.8 Enrolment of Primary School Leavers into Secondary Schools (1989-1994)**

Year	Std VII Leavers	Selected into Form 1					
		Government		Non Government		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1989	267744	18551	6.9	23585	8.8	42136	15.7
1990	306656	19673	6.4	27554	9.0	47227	15.4
1991	383427	19282	5.0	29027	7.6	48309	12.6
1992	346514	19193	5.5	25703	7.4	44896	12.9
1993	363404	21531	5.9	26965	7.4	48496	13.3
1994	370534	21589	5.8	28657	7.7	50246	13.5

Source: MOEC (BEST, 1990-1994), June, 1995

### 2.3.5 Student Performance in Secondary Schools

#### (i) Overall Picture

Looking at the performance of secondary school students (Appendix 13) the picture is not encouraging. The percentages for Division IV and Failures have been increasing while the percentages for higher divisions have been decreasing. The failure rate which in 1990 accounted for 20.4% of the candidates went up to 22.4% in 1994. The percentage for Division I fell from 7.7% to 2.9% while that of Division IV rose from 42.2% to 57.2% during the same period. The picture is more or less the same for Form VI leavers.

#### (ii) Performance by School Ownership

On average, government schools have been performing better than non government schools with the exception of religious schools, especially, Seminaries. In 1992, for example, 18 of the best 30 schools, were Seminaries, 12 were government schools while none were from the other non-

government schools. The performance in government schools can be attributed to the fact that government secondary schools are financially better because of government funds and have better qualified staff (Table 3.4). As a result, government schools have relatively better teaching facilities such as scientific equipments than non-government secondary schools.

## CHAPTER THREE

### RESOURCES FOR SCHOOLS

#### 3.1 Human Resources

The main concern in this chapter was the availability, distribution and adequacy of the resources for schools. Three major categories were identified: human, physical and financial resources.

The intention was to know the number of teaching staff available in schools for a period of five years lasting from 1991 to 1995. The data collected was to be analysed by academic qualifications and by gender of members of teaching staff. The actual number of staff was supposed to be compared with the establishment. The purpose of this comparison was to establish the seriousness of the shortage of staff in schools at different levels of education owned and run by different agencies.

##### 3.1.1 Staff Levels and Qualifications

The quantity and quality of teaching staff was examined in order to assess the quality of education. It is assumed that the quality of teachers, to a certain extent, depends on academic and professional qualifications of the staff.

##### i) Primary Schools

Table 3.1 shows that the number of teaching staff in primary schools in the country increased by 2.6% during the three year period i.e. 1992 to 1994. Further analysis reveals that, on average, over two thirds of all teachers had grades B and C qualifications but the number of Grade A teachers increased at a higher rate of 18.7% while that of Grades B/C went down by 5.2% between the period under review. On the whole, the increase of staff levels did not match with the increase in the demand for primary education as the number of streams was increasing at 6.6% during the same period. It is estimated that, in 1996, the country had a shortage of about 19,950 Grade A teachers in primary schools.

A comparison of teacher qualifications by gender did not reveal any significant differences between them. In 1992, for example, male teachers who had Grade A qualifications accounted for 33% of all male teachers while that of female teachers with the same qualifications was 31% and the trend did no change by 1994.

**Table 3.1 Primary School Teachers by Qualifications, 1992-1994**

Level	1992		1993		1994	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Grade A	32728	32	35392	35	38857	37
Grade B/C	68578	68	66424	65	65043	63
Total	101306	100	101816	100	103900	100

Source: MOEC (BEST 1990-1994), June 1995

When the data was examined by the regions, it was noted that Dar es Salaam had the highest percentage of Grade A teachers which rose from 42.6% in 1992 to 47.8% in 1994 (Table 3.2). Coast was the most disadvantaged region having a relatively low percentage of 29.6% of Grade A teachers in 1992 although the situation had improved two years later. The problem of less qualified teaching staff may have contributed to the poor performance of students in the Coast region, such as relatively high repetition rates (Paragraph 2.3.2.).

**Table 3.2 Teachers' Qualifications in Primary Schools by Regions**

Region	1992			1994		
	GRADE A		GRADE B	GRADE A		GRADE B
	No.	% Total	No.	No.	% Total	No.
Coast	913	29.6	2170	918	35.0	1702
Dar	2011	42.6	2709	2664	47.8	2911
Iringa	2013	34.0	3899	2391	40.0	3601
Morogoro	1762	32.1	3735	2032	36.1	3582

*Note that the percentage compares the number of Grade A teachers with the total number of teachers employed in the same region.*

Source: MOEC (BEST, 1990-1994), June 1995

## **ii) Secondary Schools**

### **a) Number of Staff**

According to the statistics from the MOEC at the time of the survey there was a shortage of 1,825 teachers in government secondary schools: 1,467 at "O" level and 358 at "A" level. The shortage of teachers by subject is shown in Appendix 14. This reported shortage did not take into consideration the 23 new government schools which the ministry intended to open in January 1996. This problem, which was more acute in rural areas, is likely to continue for some time since the MOEC has no direct control on the supply of teachers for "A" level schools. The ministry relies on the University of Dar es Salaam which falls under a different ministry (i.e. MSTHE). It is estimated that it will take not less than ten years to clear the current shortage of 358 teachers in "A" level government schools. This does not take into consideration the expansion of existing schools, resignations and deaths. The ministry thinks of increasing the intake in its forty teachers' training colleges but the shortage of funds hinders this possibility. Limited supply of teachers, therefore, is one of the reasons for the shortage of teaching staff. Another contributing factor to the shortage of teachers is the decline of enrolment of trainees in Teachers Training Colleges. Between 1990 and 1994, the intake dropped by 4.5% while the number of graduates went down by 7.0%. The problem is compounded by the increase of failures at the training colleges. For example, the percentage of failures for the diplomates in 1990 was 6.6% but increased to 15.9% in 1993. The failures for Grade "A" trainees in 1994 accounted for 6.1% while the rate had been at 3.2% in 1990.

The problem of the shortage of teaching staff in secondary schools could be related to the rise in the number of schools rather than the number of students. The few teachers available have been over-stretched to the rising number of secondary schools. This has resulted into each school getting an inadequate number of teachers. When one looks at the teacher/student ratios over a period of five years, one sees that the ratio is relatively low, compared to other countries. In 1990 the teacher/student ratio in secondary schools was 1:22 and by 1994 it had declined to 1:17. The ratio has been relatively higher in private schools than in government schools. In 1994, for example, the teacher/student ratio for the former was 1:20 while it was 1:14 for the latter. From the financial point of view the ratio of 1:20 is better than 1:14.

Another cause behind the shortage of staff, especially in some rural based schools may be regarded as man-created. Let us take Dar es Salaam as an example. Generally, Dar es Salaam has a surplus of teachers while there are shortages in other regions and the situation was worsened by the teachers' strike in 1995. When the teachers went on strike in Dar es Salaam in 1995, the ministry brought about 500 teachers from other regions to replace those who were on strike. When the striking teachers were pardoned unconditionally and resumed work, most of the teachers who had come from other regions did not go back to their former work places but remained in Dar es Salaam. The Ministry could neither transfer nor retrench some of these teachers because the exercise required about US \$446,000 which the government did not have. Thanks to the World Bank which provided the required money, the affected teachers were given the option of either being transferred or declared redundant. This situation in Dar es Salaam had two negative effects: 1) The creation of teaching staff shortages in some regions while at the same time increasing a surplus in Dar es Salaam. 2) Because of this surplus, some teachers in Dar es Salaam did not work as expected although they continued to receive their salaries and thus demoralising those who worked hard.

## **b) Staff Qualifications**

Table 3.4 illustrates the qualifications of secondary school teachers for the year 1994. These categories are degree holders, diplomates and 'other'. The 'other' category comprises unqualified persons, mostly Form VI leavers, employed to teach at this level of education. The 1994 data reveal that about two thirds of the secondary school teachers in Tanzania were diploma holders. The existence of 'other' shows that, although the government policy requires that a secondary school teacher must have at least a diploma qualification in the teaching profession, the situation has been that there were some teachers without these qualifications. The table reveals that out of 10,612 teachers employed in 1994 about 17% (or 1807 teachers) had no teaching qualifications but were teaching at secondary schools. Gender analysis shows that 18% of all male teachers were university graduates while female graduates accounted for 16% of all female teachers. The 'Other' category comprised very few women in this group. Only 8% of all female teachers were in this group compared to 20% for male teachers.



**Table 3.4 Qualifications of Secondary School Teaching Staff by Ownership, in 1994**

	Degree		Diploma		Other		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Government	908	16	4744	81	166	3	5818	100
Private	925	19	2228	47	1641	34	4794	100
Total	1833	17	6972	66	1807	17	10612	100

Source: MOEC (BEST 1990-1994), June 1995

The analysis by ownership of secondary schools shows that private schools were at a disadvantage. Teachers with 'other' qualifications in private schools accounted for 34% of all teachers employed in private schools compared to only 3% in government schools. Looking at this issue from another angle, about 91% (1641) of all teachers in 'other' category (1807) are deployed in non-government secondary schools. The disadvantageous position of teaching staff in non-government schools is expected because of three main factors. Firstly, private schools have no teacher training colleges of their own but depend on those trained by the government. This fact limits their chances of getting trained teachers from government centres because most of them are deployed in the government establishments as per sponsorship conditions. Secondly, with the current shortage of teachers in government schools, there is very little room for the government to allocate graduate from its colleges to private schools. Thirdly, 'poaching' of teachers from government schools is not easy. This is due to the fact that teachers in government services are not ready to forfeit their financial benefits by joining the private sector. They can only do so if private schools can offer very attractive financial packages but very few schools can afford this since most school funds are limited because schools depend on fees as their main source of revenue. Private schools, therefore, end by employing untrained teachers. This situation partly explains why the quality of education provided in private schools (except Seminaries) is poor relative to government schools as evidenced by poor student performance at the end of secondary school education. The dissatisfaction of the quality of education provided by the private sector was also expressed by the households (3.3.8).

## 3.2 Physical Resources

### 3.2.1 Physical Infrastructure

The assessment of the quality of education of any training institution will include the assessment of the institution's physical infrastructure. A relationship is considered to exist between student enrolment, quality of teaching, and student performance and the adequacy of physical facilities. The study has attempted to assess seven items in primary schools and these are: classrooms, staff houses, toilets, desks, chairs, tables and cupboards. The analysis has been done for the whole country as well as for the regions under study. Facilities have been assessed in terms of inadequacy presented in percentages measuring the shortages against the requirements.

Table 3.5 shows the situation in primary schools in the country for a period of four years i.e. 1991 to 1994. The general picture is that most primary schools had a shortage of physical facilities. The most critical item was staff houses whose percentage of inadequacy ranged from 71 to 77 during the period under review.

**Table 3.5: Inadequacy of Buildings and Furniture (in Percentages) in Primary Schools at National Level, 1991-1994**

ITEM	1991		1992		1993		1994	
	Required	%	Required	%	Required	%	Required	%
Classrooms	83818	37	81366	38	98643	38	85911	40
Staff Houses	100578	71	97664	75	99952	77	106423	77
Toilets	121635	68	130922	72	143035	73	148044	71
Desks	1410987	47	1566644	53	1613523	53	1676254	52
Tables	158012	58	162783	63	175271	64	183487	61
Chairs	198334	65	187976	67	188614	68	193343	68
Cupboards	117282	75	114133	77	113413	68	114522	74

It can be observed from the table that the availability of physical facilities has been declining from year to year. With the exception of classrooms and cupboards, the inadequacy of all physical facilities has been increasing at an annual rate of about 6%.

Analysis in terms of the four regions under study for the year 1994 shows that the situation in these regions was worse in terms of tables, chairs and cupboards but better with the rest of the items when compared with the situation at the national level (Appendix 14 and Appendix 15). Of all the regions surveyed, Coast region was the hardest hit as none of the facilities have adequacy above 50%. Surely, this factor also affects student performance. Financial constraints in Coast region is the main factor behind the serious shortage of physical facilities. Of all the regions under study, Coast region has the highest level of poverty (Appendix 20). The most critical item for Dar es Salaam was staff housing as only 5% of the required houses were available in 1994 but it fared well in the acquisition of desks. The Dar es Salaam Desk Project must have helped to minimise this problem. The response to finance the production of desks rather than building staff houses can be explained by the fact that it is natural for parents to act quickly on matters affecting directly their children than those affecting the teachers. Iringa primary schools faced very little problems in areas of classrooms and desks.

The inadequacy of these facilities can also be assessed by looking at the distribution of these facilities among the users. Appendix 16, which shows a profile of a typical primary school in the country in the year 1994, gives a gloomy picture. On average, there were 73 students (instead of 45) per classroom and each classroom had about 12 desks meaning that about six students shared a desk. As regards teaching staff the situation was that two teachers shared a table and a chair was also shared by two teachers. One house accommodated four teachers.

### **3.2.2 Instructional and Teaching Materials**

#### **i) General**

The study has revealed that instructional materials were either non-existent or, where they were available, their supplies were insufficient as illustrated in Appendix 17. Generally, textbooks, teaching guides, reference books and teaching aids were insufficient while the rest of the items were almost unavailable. The extent of insufficiency, as pointed out by teachers, ranged from 73% for teaching aids to 80% for textbooks. When expressing their views on the availability of education facilities in their respective schools, about 60% of households mentioned the poor quality of teaching materials while only 7% expressed satisfaction. The non-availability of scientific and computing equipments, as expressed by heads of schools, was 58% and 75% for scientific equipment and computers, respectively. The non-availability of scientific and technological equipments is due to the low technological development in Tanzania as there are very few schools which use computers and other scientific equipments for teaching. Primary and rural-based schools are worse off in this respect when compared to secondary and urban schools.

#### **ii) Inadequacy by Regions and School Ownership**

Classification of responses by regions showed that schools in Coast region were affected most. The teachers' views, regarding this matter, were in agreement with those of the households in this region. About 64% of the households responding to our questionnaire registered their dissatisfaction on the availability of teaching materials. Private schools were worse off than government schools. The difference may be attributed to the fact that school funds were less guaranteed in private schools as compared to government schools. Lack of sufficient teaching and instructional materials adversely affects the quality of teaching and hence student performance. The poor student performance in Coast region and in non-government schools has already been pointed out earlier.

### **3.3 Financial Resources**

#### **3.3.1 Introduction**

The examination of financial resources available to schools was undertaken for two main reasons. The first reason was to reflect the fact that financial resources have an important bearing in running schools and also on the quantity and quality of their products. The second reason was to examine how schools and education providers have responded to the economic crisis which has reduced the resources available for education in real terms. Financial resources have been examined in five areas: (a) the current (1995) cost of education, (b) household spending on education, (c) the current and desired sources of funds for recurrent expenditures, (d) the breakdown of recurrent spending for a five-year period for which data was available, and (e) the cost-sharing schemes.

#### **3.3.2 Cost of Education**

The average costs of educating a student in primary as well as secondary schools for the year 1995 have been calculated. With the available data from 67 primary schools and 26 secondary schools the average annual costs of educating a student have been calculated at US \$46 and US \$170 at primary and secondary levels, respectively. The costs in secondary schools differed by ownership and by the nature of the schools i.e. boarding and day schools. On average, it costed about US

\$119 per student per year at a day secondary school while the annual costs at a boarding school were estimated at US \$306 per student. Generally, it has been revealed that costs in government secondary schools are lower than those in religious and community schools. This could mean that there are more inputs, such as teaching facilities in private schools owned by religious organisations than is the case in government schools. The availability of such facilities could be one of the factors contributing to good performance in religious schools. Another explanation for the low costs in government schools could be related to the accounting system used. Some cost items, including the overheads, which are not known to the teachers might have been left out of the cost calculations. The high costs in private schools could be because these schools are profit oriented.

### **3.3.3 Household Spending on Education**

#### **i) General Picture**

The households were asked to estimate the amount of money they paid for each child in primary and secondary schools during the year 1995. On average, a parent paid US \$35 and US \$126 per child in primary and secondary education, respectively. It would be interesting to compare the paid amount with the estimated costs of education in 1995 as given by heads of schools. It was noted that parents paid about 76% and 74% of the total estimated costs at primary and secondary schools, respectively. Parents with students in secondary schools paid a lower proportion of the costs compared to that of primary schools. The explanation as to why parents pay less than the estimated costs could be that the estimates given by the teachers include other financial obligations which are not paid for directly by the parents but by other agencies such as the central and local governments.

#### **ii) Spending by Urban and Rural Households**

Further analysis showed that urban parents spent more than parents in the country side. Urban household respondents paid \$35 for primary education while \$26 was said to be paid by rural people for the same level of education. The survey further revealed that spending on education also depended on levels of education as well as incomes. Parents with higher levels of incomes can easily afford to pay for extra items which is not the case for the poor. The higher the education level, the higher the opportunity to earn incomes which result in a higher ability to pay for extra activities in education. The additional spending by households who live in urban areas and those with higher education and incomes is mainly on private tuition, transport and pocket money for lunch. The existence of costs related to private tuition has been revealed by the households especially those in town centres like Dar es Salaam and those with post-primary education. Private tuition expenses were indicated more by employees and business people rather than by farmers and other parents who depend on agriculture for their livelihood.

### **3.3.4 Financing the Education Sector**

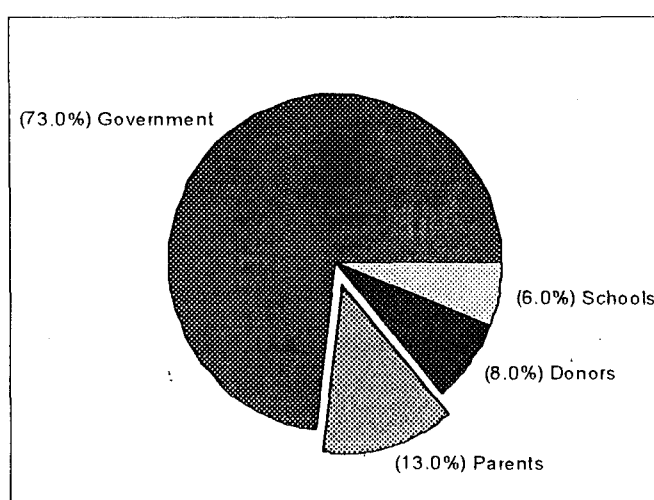
#### **i) Current Sources of Funds**

##### **(a) Overall Situation**

An examination of financing schools was undertaken for two main reasons. Firstly, to establish the current state of affairs with respect to public financing of education. Secondly, to understand the current state of partnership that exists between the government and the other actors in the financing

and delivery process. Current funds for running schools (i.e. recurrent expenditures) come from four main sources (Chart 3.3 and Table 3.9). The first source is the government which provides funds in the form of grants and subventions and this has been by far the biggest single source of funds for education. For the period 1991 to 1995 on average the government has contributed 73% of the total funds available for running schools. The yearly contributions have been fluctuating. In 1992, for example, the government contribution accounted for 84% while the government's contribution in 1995 fell to 54%. This downward trend is not surprising because of the tight government budgets while the demand for financial resources from other competing sectors has been on the increase. There is evidence that current public spending on education as a proportion of total national expenditure has been declining. The money allocated to the MOEC dropped from 6.3% in 1990/91 to 3.3% in 1993/94 as revealed in Appendix 8. The second source consists of parents who contribute towards school fees, uniforms and other compulsory contributions. Funds from this group accounted for 13% of total school funds. The third source includes donations from various donor agencies accounting for 8% of total school funds. The fourth source of funds, which contributes 6%, is the schools themselves which provide funds earned from the services provided by the schools i.e. self help schemes.

**Chart 3.3: Current Sources of School Funds**



The contribution from donor agencies may seem to be high compared to what other authorities have indicated in the past. Maliyamkono, (1982) pointed out that donor contribution does not exceed 1% of total education recurrent funds in SSA. In this study, donations include funds from non traditional foreign funders as well as local agencies and contributions from individuals. Non traditional funders include Plan International which has embarked on school rehabilitation and the expansion of primary schools in Ilala District in Dar es Salaam region. Plan International also provides funds for the needy pupils and school supplies. Between 1992 and 1995, the National Education Trust Fund (NETF) assisted 199 private schools at an estimated financial figure of US \$233,300. NETF has also earmarked about US \$4,009,300 for the benefit of 147 schools in the country during 1996/97 financial year. The 8% contribution from donor agencies, therefore, should not be a surprise.

**Table 3.9 Sources of Funds by School Setting in Percentage**

Source	Overall		Location			
			Urban		Rural	
	<i>Current</i>	<i>Desired</i>	<i>Current</i>	<i>Desired</i>	<i>Current</i>	<i>Desired</i>
Government	73	61	80	65	62	68
Parents	13	19	7	20	28	18
Donations	8	10	8	10	2	9
Self Help Schemes	6	10	5	5	8	9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

**(b) Sources of Funds by School Setting**

Data was further examined by the setting of schools i.e. urban and rural areas. It was observed (Table 3.9) that the government contributed more to the urban based schools (80%) than to those in the rural areas (62%) while the parents in rural areas had more financial responsibilities (28%) than parents in urban centres (7%). The government practice favours urban schools, which generally have superior and well established facilities and which enjoy an advanced urban socio-economic infrastructure compared to rural schools. The government continues to invest more in the education of urban upper and middle class children than in the education of the rural poor. There is a danger that as long as better qualified and experienced teachers continue to drift into urban areas and into schools with superior facilities, and as long as the government continues to provide salaries, the privileged classes will continue to be the main beneficiaries of the education system. This practice has a negative effect on equity.

**Table 3.10 Sources of Funds by Education Level of Schools**

Source	Primary Level		Secondary Level	
	Current %	Desired %	Current %	Desired %
Government Subsidy	16	68	67	56
Parents	26	15	22	26
Donations	18	10	6	9
Self Help Schemes	40	10	5	9
Total	100	100	100	100

**(c) Sources of Funds by Education Level of Schools**

- Upon analysis of the data by level of education provided by the responding schools, it was revealed that government contribution, as a percentage of total funds, towards education expenses at

secondary school level was as high as 67% compared to only 16% contributed to primary schools. This high percentage can be explained by the fact that most of the government secondary schools require a substantial amount of recurrent expenditure for teaching materials, laboratory and scientific equipments and boarding facilities which are not common in primary schools. Salaries, which are met by the government, are higher at secondary than at primary level of education. Primary schools, therefore, are at the disadvantage of getting government funds. With less share of government funds, primary schools rely on self help schemes (40%) and parents (26%) as the major sources of funds (Table 3.10). Both the pupils and the parents have had negative attitudes towards these income generating activities since pupils spend much time in these activities and less time on academic matters. As a result, some pupils especially the boys, lose interest in education activities and stop going to school regularly while others leave schools to go and start their own petty businesses. Some parents will go to the extent of preventing their children from going to school to avoid self-reliance activities.

Government funds as a proportion of total funds used by schools should not be confused with the share of total government funds earmarked for education which goes to different levels of education. The available statistics (1993/94 government estimates) show that about half of the government money meant for education goes to primary education. This amount of money, which comes from the government, is a small percentage of the total money spent by the primary education sector.

#### **(d) Sources of Funds by Ownership of Schools**

It was noted, as expected, that government schools got most of their financial needs (90%) from the government. Both private and religious schools, have not been getting any funds from the government and have mainly depended on parents. Private schools reported that about 96% of the school budget came from the parents. Owners of both religious and community schools have also been contributing about 35% and 30% of the total school funds, respectively. Contributions from parents with children in religious and community schools accounted for 58% and 46%, respectively, as indicated in Appendix 18. With the present level of poverty that parents are experiencing, surely the amount of money they raise cannot meet school requirements. This explains why non government schools lack necessary facilities and qualified teachers which, in turn, affect student performance. No wonder that private schools have not been performing well in examinations compared to students in government schools, which are relatively better in the provision of teaching materials and staff in both qualitative and quantitative terms.

### **ii) Desired Financing Structure**

#### **(a) Overall Picture**

The heads of schools were asked to give their opinion on how they would like their schools to be financed, in terms of percentage, between the government, parents, schools and donor agencies. Of the 204 expected respondents, 173 gave responses. The government was pin pointed out as remaining the main financing agency. The respondents wanted the government contribution to be reduced to about 61% of the total expenditure instead of the current rate of 73% (Table 3.9 and Appendix 5). The heads of schools thought that parents should contribute about 19% while contributions from self-help schemes and donations should be 10% each. The results show that the heads of schools would like the parents to take more responsibilities towards the education

expenses of their children and lessen the burden on the government whose financial resources are inadequate to meet demands from various competing sectors of the economy.

### **(b) Desired Financial Sources by Education Level**

When the data was analyzed by the level of education of schools of the respondents, interesting results were revealed. The respondents pointed out that the government has to reduce its financial share to secondary education from 67% to 56% but increase its share substantially to primary education from 16% to 68% (Table 3.10). The heads of schools seem to say that the higher the education level the lower the government contribution should be. However, a positive relationship was revealed between the parents' contribution and the education level of schools. The respondents said that parents' contribution should increase as the level of education of their children increases. They indicated that the contributions from the parents for primary school expenditure should be reduced from the current level of 26% to 15% while that at secondary education level be increased to reach 26% from the current share of 22%. These responses are in line with the government policy of providing basic education to its citizens since this is regarded as a human right. The government has to give primary education a priority for the following reasons. Firstly, that is where we have the largest numbers of students enrolled. (Compare charts 1.1 and 1.2 in the appendices). Secondly, over 70% of primary education costs are for teachers' salaries and teachers are needed in higher numbers to ensure good quality education. Thirdly, primary education is all the formal education most rural children will ever receive.

The teachers also suggested that revenues from self help schemes in primary schools have to be reduced so that the contribution from this source be 10% of the total financial requirements instead of the current share of 40%. This could be due to the fact that too much time is spent on these activities rather than on academic matters thus making students lose interest in their education.

### **(c) Desired Financial Sources by School Ownership**

The heads of schools pointed out the need for the government to extend financial assistance to private schools. Students in these schools, too, are Tanzanian citizens and have the right to benefit from the country's resources. Appendix 18 shows that government contribution, in the form of subsidy to these schools, has been proposed at 22%, 15% and 17% for private, religious and community schools, respectively.

The contribution of parents was rated highest in privately-owned schools although lower than the current contribution (65% against 96%) and lowest in religious schools (23%). The parents were expected to contribute 39% of the community schools' expenses. This figure is not excessively big because community schools are owned and run by the parents themselves. The suggestions on parents' contribution reflect what is taking place in Tanzania as far as the financing of education services is concerned. Parents who take their children to private schools pay more than what they pay for their children in government schools. In 1995 for example, ESACS Academy of Dar es Salaam (primary level) charged US \$1,000 tuition fee per child per year.

The issue of government financial contribution to non government schools needs to be examined carefully for equity reasons and to avoid gross disparity in per student expenditure levels between different types of schools. What criteria will be used to determine the amount to be contributed by the government to non public schools? Will it be a flat rate per school or a proportion of fees charged per student? As indicated in the previous paragraph ESACS Academy charges \$1,000



tuition fees per student per annum while the total cost in a government primary school, on average, did not exceed \$35. Suppose the government decides to provide 10 percent of the cost, then a pupil at ESACS will get a subsidy of \$100 while a pupil at Kawe Primary school, which is not far from ESACS, will get only \$3.5. This means that the government will spend twenty eight times more on a pupil at ESACS than a pupil at Kawe. In other words, for every child who goes to ESACS twenty seven pupils, who could have gone to Kawe, are denied government assistance. There is a danger of favouring the privileged students at the expense of the unprivileged.

If the government decides to subsidise teachers' salaries for non government schools then it may promote inequalities among schools if a blanket grant is provided regardless of the need or the nature of the financial resource base of schools. High cost schools then, which pay high salaries, will receive larger grants while government schools receive less. In addition, such high cost schools can raise enough money to employ additional teachers so as to enjoy favourable teacher/student ratios. This type of subsidy may, therefore, greatly favour schools that not only enjoy superior facilities but also are supported by the middle and upper classes who can raise additional funds to attract best teachers and to get more facilities. Similarly, this policy may favour urban schools, which, generally, have superior facilities and who enjoy advanced socio-economic infrastructure compared to rural schools.

Further analysis revealed that teachers were of the opinion that the government should reduce its contribution to urban schools and slightly increase its share to schools in rural areas. This opinion should not be a surprise because the teachers, who are faced with the problem of collecting fees and other contributions from the parents, are aware of the fact that the people in rural areas have less ability to pay when compared to people living in towns. Rural incomes are lower than urban incomes. For equity reasons the rural poor need assistance more than the urban rich.

### **e) Self Help Schemes**

A word has to be said on self help schemes which are being carried out in schools country wide. Schools at both levels of education have been making profits but the absolute value has been declining. Between 1990 and 1994, for example, profits for primary schools dropped by 17% from US \$464,600 (Appendix 6). The amount of profits may look impressive but a deeper examination might show a different picture when one looks at say the average profits per school or per student. In 1994, profit per primary school student was 14 cents of a dollar while of a secondary student was \$1.20. One may raise the question of whether these exercises are worth doing, considering their effects on the academic performance of children. There has to be a way of getting rid of such money making projects and concentrate on projects that are necessary for academic and self-reliance purposes?

## **3.3.5 Paying for the Cost Elements of Education**

### **(i) Overall Picture**

The study further looked at the issue of financing education by asking both groups of respondents (i.e. heads of schools and households) to give their opinion on who should contribute towards what and at what percentage of the various items that are required to be paid for in schools. The cost elements as indicated in Appendix 19 included, among others, fees, uniforms, various contributions such as UPE, teaching materials and books, maintenance and administrative costs. The costs of these elements are to be shared among the government, parents, local community and authorities.

The teachers as well as the households wanted the government to take the responsibility of paying all staff salaries (100%) while the parents should take care of all the expenses related with school uniforms. Another interesting finding is that both groups of respondents are of the same opinion that expenses for transport be shared between the government and the parents but administration expenses be shared between the government and the local authorities although at different percentages. While the teachers want the transport costs to be shared equally between the government and the parents the households, who are also parents, would like the government to bear a bigger portion of this cost i.e. 62%. Both types of respondents agreed that local authorities should meet only 15% of the administrative costs. The table further shows that about three quarters of the expenses for school materials and books be borne by the government while the rest of the expenses be shared mostly among the parents and local government authorities. Both headteachers and households think that slightly over half of the expenses in respect of school fees and the maintenance of the infrastructure be paid for by the government while parents contribute between 28% and 33% of the schools fees and only 20% of the maintenance expenses. As far as the issue of examination fees is concerned it was stated that these expenses be shared between the government and the parents (10% to 25%). Both groups agree that the local community has to participate in the maintenance of the physical infrastructures of their schools. Furthermore, the teachers think that local communities should contribute about 5% to each of the costs for tuition, school materials, books and other compulsory contributions. Local governments are not expected to contribute towards uniforms, staff salaries, transport and examination fees. Parents are expected to contribute towards all items except salaries and administrative expenses.

Both the households and teachers agree that parents should contribute towards student welfare by meeting at least 10% of the boarding expenses. It has been argued that parents who feed their children while at home should extend this responsibility to children at school for obvious reasons. Tambaza Secondary School, in Dar es Salaam, was given as an example where parents have decided to contribute \$262 per student per year towards the upkeep of their children who stay at school.

## **(ii) Payment by Household Setting**

Comparing the responses of the households from urban and rural areas the respondents who lived in the latter areas, as opposed to those who live in the former areas, expressed more need for having some participation of the local community in areas of school fees, UPE contributions and school materials. This is because the households who live in the rural poor areas are aware of the financial problems facing the parents and they would like to be assisted.

### **3.3.6 Uses of Funds**

#### **i) Uses of Funds by Level of Education**

An analysis of the expenditure pattern of various categories of recurrent expenditure items for the last five years (1990/91 to 1994/95) was made. The purpose was to see how the allocation of financial resources was made between salaries, teaching materials, travel, boarding, maintenance, utilities and other support services. The analysis combined both rural and urban schools. Table 3.13 reveals that while 70% of the funds available to primary schools is spent on staff salaries and other allowances 30% of the expenditure in secondary schools is spent on salaries and another 30% is for boarding expenses. The low spending on boarding in primary schools is expected because there are very few primary schools with boarding facilities as compared to secondary schools. The share on

maintenance of primary schools is twice that spent by secondary schools. As expected, teaching materials take a higher share in secondary education (17%) compared to the one in primary education (4%). Secondary schools need extra items, such as laboratory supplies, most of which are not required for primary education. On the whole, in terms of share, Tanzania does not perform badly in the allocation of funds to the teaching materials compared to other African countries. Generally, expenditure on teaching materials seldom exceeds 3% in countries of Africa, south of the Sahara.

**Table 3.13 Allocation of School Recurrent Expenditure by Items (in Percentages)**

Item	Education Level		School Setting	
	Primary	Secondary	Urban	Rural
Salaries and allowances	70	30	37	39
Teaching materials	4	17	27	5
Travel	5	5	7	3
Boarding	4	30	12	35
Maintenance	10	5	4	5
Utilities	4	2	2	1
Others	3	11	11	12
Total	100	100	100	100

## ii) Uses of Funds by School Setting

The use of funds was further examined by comparing rural and urban schools without differentiating education levels. It was found out that proportions of expenditure allocated to salaries were more or less equal to all schools in both areas. This is due to the fact that salary scales do not depend on the location of schools but are uniform throughout the country. The proportion of expenditure in urban schools allocated to teaching materials is slightly over five times the proportion spent on this expenditure item in rural based schools. No wonder that schools in town centres have better teaching facilities those located in the country side. This difference can be partly explained by the way the government allocates education funds to these two types of schools. It was earlier noted that the government's share of total school expenses was higher in urban schools than in rural schools. (Refer Table 3.9). As far as boarding expenses are concerned, rural-based schools spend a higher percentage (35%) than urban schools (12%). The low spending on this item by urban schools is probably because there are very few schools in urban areas which offer accommodation facilities. Urban secondary schools, for example, are not far from households compared to the distance for schools in rural areas. In Tanzania there are very few schools in the country side within walking distance. According to the Tanzania Human Resources Development Survey (World Bank, 1995) government secondary schools are about 54 kilometres (from households) in rural areas and 14 kilometres in urban areas outside Dar es Salaam.

### **3.3.7 Cost Sharing Scheme**

#### **i) Historical Note on Cost Sharing**

Cost sharing in education, which simply means the act of sharing education expenses between the government and the beneficiaries of education, is not a new thing in Tanzania. Prior to and soon after independence, school fees were charged in both private and public educational institutions. In the mid 1960s, the government abolished school fees but not all the education expenses. The beneficiaries of primary education or their parents continued to pay for other education expenses like uniforms, copy books, food and transport to and from school while the beneficiaries of secondary education paid mainly for uniforms.

Cost sharing in government secondary schools was re-introduced for school fees, transport and examination fees in 1985, 1993 and 1994, respectively. Until June 1996, annual school fees for each student had been set at about \$14 for day secondary schools and about \$26 for boarding schools. Other expenses paid for by the students and parents include books, bedding and expenses for extra activities such as sports.

School fees in private schools have also been fixed by the government in order to limit the exploitation of students by school owners. During the 1995/96 financial year the annual fees per student were fixed at \$70 and \$122 for day and boarding schools, respectively. The problem with this arrangement is that these fees do not reflect the real situation. For example, it has been estimated that in 1995 student cost at a boarding secondary school stood at \$306 (paragraph 3.3.2) while the government had fixed it at \$70. This led most schools to resort to compulsory payments from the students in the form of contributions as a condition to get admission. Some secondary schools which have been cited to have resorted to this action include Shaban Robert and Mzizima of Dar es Salaam region.

#### **ii) Existence and the Need of the Scheme**

Cost sharing schemes exist in almost all schools covered by this study as indicated by 90% of the school respondents. The differences between region was very small as the ratings ranged between 97% (Coast) and 87% (Morogoro). These results were confirmed by 92% of the household respondents. Rural-based parents, whose sources of incomes largely depend on agriculture, tended to contribute slightly more than those who live in towns. The big contribution by the rural-based parents is in agreement with what the heads of schools had indicated when answering a question on the current sources of school funds. The teachers indicated that parents in rural areas contributed about 28% compared to 7% contributed by parents living in urban areas. The main items where cost sharing is applied include school fees, uniforms, infrastructure (such as classrooms), school materials and books. Communities contribute towards the running of the schools through three main ways: building classrooms (79%) and staff houses (59%), and providing managerial assistance to schools. Parents and households are members of various schools committees and school boards.

On the whole, the scheme is preferred by most schools as indicated by 74% of school representatives. Dar es Salaam was less in favour of the scheme (60%) than Iringa (82%). There were very little differences noted between urban and rural schools. It was noted, however, that out of the six private schools that gave responses to this question none disliked the scheme. This could be due to the fact that parent contribution in private schools is a normal thing. Secondary schools tended to be in favour of cost sharing more than schools at primary level of education. The

responses indicated by school representatives did not differ from those given by the households. Both male and female household respondents rated this aspect equally at 74%. Again the issue of the education of the respondents did show its influence on the preference of cost sharing. Parents with secondary and tertiary education tended to favour the scheme more than those with low education. Parents with higher education can understand the reasons behind cost sharing initiatives more easily than those with low level of education. The necessity for cost sharing has also been expressed by the respondents from the high income groups because of their ability to pay.

### **iii) Effects and Benefits of Cost Sharing**

The majority of the heads of schools (90%) agreed that the scheme helped in running their respective schools. There were no big differences noted by regions or level of education provided by schools. It was interesting to note that none of the private schools gave negative responses. This finding ties in very well with the responses given on the question of the necessity of the scheme whereby all private and religious schools liked the scheme (Paragraph 3.3.7(ii)). All schools at both levels of education, but to a less extent in rural areas, have benefited from the cost sharing schemes. The more benefits to urban schools can be explained by the fact that contributions from various donors, whether local or foreign, tend to favour urban areas and the donations are usually high. The impact of aid is felt more in urban than in rural areas. The desk project in Dar es Salaam is one of many examples. Cost sharing has helped in solving and/or minimising some of the problems that are facing schools. These include the building of classrooms, staff offices and the availability of other school supplies. The same trend of responses were also expressed by parents in this aspect although those with lower education observed more benefits from the scheme than the respondents with higher level of education.

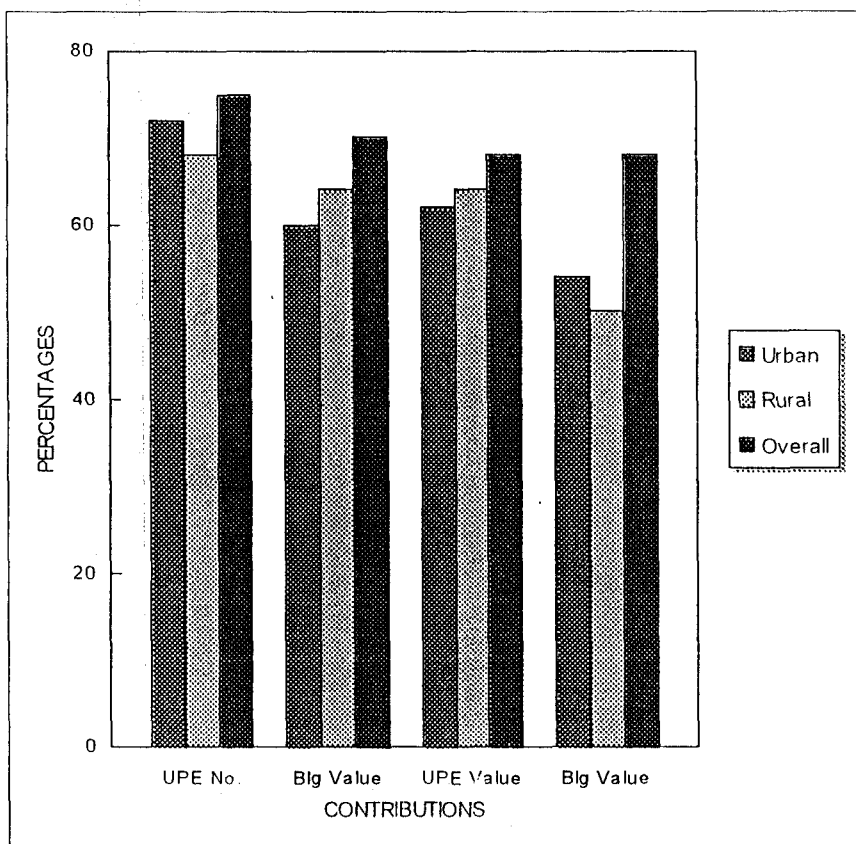
Although the scheme was favoured by the majority of the respondents, it was thought to be a disadvantage to the poor. 68% of the heads of schools who responded to this question said that the scheme did not in favour the poor and Iringa region was leading in this opinion with 73%. These feelings were expressed more by urban-based schools (72%) than rural-based ones (64%).

### **v) Problems of Implementing the Scheme**

#### **a) Responses from Schools**

Although cost sharing was regarded as necessary by most of the teachers as well as the parents, several schools faced problems in the implementation of this scheme i.e. collection of fees and other contributions. On average 68% of school representatives pointed out this as a problem. In terms of value, the collection rate of UPE contributions was 65% and the rate for the buildings contributions was 52% (Chart 3.6). The collections were also examined by comparing the expected number of contributors with the actual number of people who made the contributions. The analysis revealed that UPE covered about 72% of the targeted people while the coverage for the buildings was 61% of the target. The results show that UPE collection rates, from both aspects, have been higher than those of buildings. The explanation for these results could be that the UPE amount of \$35 is within the reach of most of the parents when compared to that of buildings. The data given by the schools which gave responses to this variable showed that the expected contributions for the buildings was about three times the amount for UPE contributions.

**Chart 3.6: Collections of Contributions from UPE and Buildings in Percentage**



Regional analysis revealed that Dar es Salaam region experienced less problems (58%) while Coast region had many problems in this area (75%). This is not surprising because Dar es Salaam has the highest GDP than other region covered by this study. Appendix 20 shows that in 1993 GDP for Dar es Salaam region was \$184,693,770 (average exchange rate of \$1 = Shs. 479.87) while Coast region had the lowest GDP of \$48,081,770. Poverty, which adversely affects the parents' ability to pay, is one of the explanatory factors contributing to this problem in Coast region. The study has clearly revealed that rural schools had higher collection rates than schools based in towns. Private schools experienced less than government and community schools. This is due to the habit of the government of providing education almost free of charge in government schools while parents are committed to pay for education services provided by the private sector. Any attempt that requires people, who are used to free services, to make some contributions towards their children's education will definitely meet some resistance. The level of education of the concerned schools did not matter as far as the implementation of the cost sharing scheme was concerned.

#### **b) Household Responses**

About three quarters of the respondents said that they had difficulties in paying fees and other contributions. The problem was serious to parents who lived in rural areas and those who had less education. The difficulties facing people in rural areas are mainly because of lower incomes than urban people. The seriousness of low incomes in rural Tanzania has also been pointed out by the World Bank Report (1995). The report pointed out that about 85% of the people with incomes of less than \$1 a day and 90% of people with incomes below \$0.75 a day live in the countryside. The rural population will therefore have more difficulties in meeting school financial obligations than

their counterparts in urban areas. The research has also shown that farmers, who live in the countryside and who depend on primitive agricultural methods for family sustenance, including sending children to school, had more problems than the respondents who are engaged in business, industrial and office work. Education levels were related to the ability to pay. The lower the education level one has the less the employment opportunities and, as a result, the less the income one gets and hence less ability to meet financial obligations. People with low education and low incomes will have, therefore, more difficulties in meeting their basic needs including education of their children.

#### **vi) Willingness to Contribute to the Scheme**

After looking at the prevalence of, the benefits of cost sharing and the problems related with it, a question was raised on people's willingness to contribute towards the scheme. The results showed that only half of the school respondents thought that the parents were willing to contribute towards the costs of their children's education. More parents in Dar (67%) were willing to pay than parents in Iringa region (44%). The willingness in Dar is in line with what had been indicated on the issues of favouring the scheme (60%) and the fewer problems in collecting the necessary contributions (58%). Surprisingly, willingness to pay was expressed more by the rural-based schools (54%) than those in the urban areas (46%) although the incomes of the latter group are higher than those of the former group. Responses on the willingness to meet these obligations tended to reflect the level of education offered by the schools under study. The response rate of respondents from secondary schools who gave positive responses was 76% compared to 42% of those in primary schools. There are two reasons for these. Firstly, the benefits of the scheme are noticed more at secondary than at primary schools. Secondly, it has been pointed out earlier that the scheme is preferred more by secondary than primary schools.

When this variable was analyzed by type of ownership of schools, it was found out that respondents from government schools thought parents were less willing than other types of ownership. This is because the teachers know well that people, who are used to free services in government owned schools are reluctant to changes which require them to pay for some services provided. This also explains why government schools face more problems in implementing the scheme than private schools. The findings show clearly that the problems associated with the implementation of cost sharing are a reflection of the parents' willingness to contribute to the scheme. The more willing to contribute, the less the problems will be faced by schools, in the implementation of the scheme.

#### **vii) Parent's Ability to Contribute**

Willingness alone is not enough for the success of cost sharing strategy. It is the ability to pay that really matters. People's ability to share some education expenses was another area of study. Although half of school respondents indicated that parents were willing to meet their financial obligations, only a quarter were of the opinion that parents had the ability to pay. The low ability rates are due to the level of poverty existing in Tanzania. It was Dar es Salaam region which had more than half of the respondents (52%) who said that parents were able to meet such obligations. Morogoro had most difficulties as far as ability was concerned as 85% of the respondents indicated their inability. The ability for Dar es Salaam is not surprising since this region has the highest GDP of all the regions under study. Of all the regions, Dar es Salaam has the highest willingness and ability to contribute to the education expenses. The inability to pay was expressed equally by respondents from rural and urban schools but more pronounced at primary than at secondary school level and more in government schools than private and religious schools. This means that

parents who send their children to private schools, and to some extent, to secondary schools are more able to meet some of the education expenses. It is interesting to note that a bigger percentage of the respondents who were willing to pay indicated they had the ability to, more than those who were less willing. This means that willingness will, to a large extent, depend on the ability. For example, the respondents from secondary schools indicated more willingness and more ability than those from primary schools. Dar es Salaam region which indicated the highest rate of willingness also rated the highest ability. About 84% of the respondents indicated their unwillingness to pay because of their financial inability. The inability to contribute to the cost sharing scheme was also emphasized by the household respondents when answering the question on the difficulties they had in paying fees and other contributions.

### **viii) Fate of Needy Students**

#### **(a) General Picture**

Having noted with concern all the problems related with financing one's education such as the inability to pay because of poverty a question was raised on what can be done to students who cannot afford education expenses. Another reason for raising this question was due to the fact that the scheme tended to be at the disadvantage of the poor. The students were classified into four categories: (i) **children from impoverished families**, (ii) **girls from impoverished families**, (iii) **orphans**, and (iv) **children with disabilities and coming from impoverished families**. The question was put to school representatives as well as to the households.

Most of the school representatives were of the opinion that the government should come to the assistance of all groups of students although, to some extent, less to children with disabilities. The ratings for the disabled group were 30% compared to 46%, 41% and 39% for the first, second and third groups, respectively. The government can assist these students by providing free education or meeting the required direct costs of education such as school fees. The low rates from the teachers for the disabled students is a reflection of the value the society attaches to disabled people. Local governments, donor community and other agents have to come to the assistance of children whose families have no ability to meet educational expenses for one reason or another. NETF and Plan International are examples of organisations that are providing assistance to the needy students. NETF supports community based girls and co-educational secondary schools while Plan helps the poor students in Dar es Salaam. The two pilot projects: Community Education Fund and Girls Secondary Education Support under IDA credits are aiming at assisting poor students at primary education and girls at secondary level of education, respectively.

The responses from the households did not differ much from the ones given by the teachers except that the households wanted more involvement from the communities either directly or through their respective local authorities. These results confirm what had been pointed out earlier that households want to participate actively in school matters affecting their children. Parents would also like to see more cooperation between the government and other donor agencies. Coordination, the household thought, could eliminate possible and unnecessary duplication of resources. There were two additional ideas on assisting the needy students pointed out by the households but not by the heads of schools. These were the establishment of special schools and centres to cater for the needy students, especially orphans and students with disabilities. The other methods of assisting needy students mentioned by the households was the granting of loans to students from impoverished families. Loan schemes were not to be applied to the other three groups of students i.e. girls, orphans and disabled students.



Data analysis by gender revealed interesting results. The issue of loans was raised by more male respondents while the idea of special schools and centres for the disabled came from more female respondents. At the speculation level (since there is no research data) the explanation of these responses could be that the males, who are mostly heads of households, feel more responsibility towards their families than females. Educating their children, being is one such responsibility and the males have to look for all possible means to carry out their roles. Women's concern for the disabled children is because, by their nature, women are more concerned with care for children than their male counterparts.

The respondents from the urban rather than from the rural areas were of the opinion that a loan scheme was a way of assisting needy students. This response reflects the ability to pay of the urban dwellers which is higher than that of rural poor. It was also the respondents from urban rather than people from the countryside who were in favour of the establishment of special schools, mostly for orphans and disabled children. More attention to the problem of orphans and disabled people is paid in urban areas than in rural areas although this does not mean that there are very few people with disabilities in the rural areas.

#### **(b) Needy Students and the Government Policy**

The government of Tanzania emphasises the need for parents to make financial contributions towards their children's education but at the same time knows the financial limitations on the part of parents. The government policy says that students who fail to pay fees or other contributions should not be expelled from schools. Parents who fail to raise fees have to apply to school boards and committees through their respective village governments for exemption. Recommendations are to be forwarded to the MOEC through the REOs for appropriate action. Some incidences have been cited whereby students have been barred from school because of the lack of school fees. It has already been mentioned (Table 2.6) that lack of school fees was one of the factors which contributed to the problem of dropouts among secondary school students. This could be because the parents who fail to raise the required amount of money do not follow the procedures laid down. This may be because parents are not aware of these procedures.

All these suggestions, made by the households, school representatives and supported by the government, are meant to make education accessible to all children including the disadvantaged ones. Accessibility and equity issues are, therefore, taken into consideration by the key players in the provision of education.

#### **ix) Loan Schemes**

It is true that student loans are an option to mobilise additional resources for education, improve resource allocation and improve the equity of educational finance. However, the issue of providing loans to individuals and households to buy education services ought to be looked at carefully. Some factors to be examined include, among others, the beneficiaries of the loans, the availability of education services and the question of loan repayment. As mentioned earlier the majority of Tanzanians live in the rural areas where there are very few schools within a walking distance. According to the Tanzania Human Resources Development Survey (World Bank, 1995), primary schools are about 5 to 7 kilometres from households and government secondary schools are about 54 kilometres in rural areas and 14 kilometres in urban areas outside Dar es Salaam. People may be given loans but may fail to utilise them because of the non existence of schools. One would argue for the establishment of education services first before raising the issue educational loans.

Another concern regarding the use of loans is the beneficiaries of such a scheme. Studies have shown that, on the whole, the benefits from government and donor subsidies are skewed towards the relatively rich. A study carried out in 1993/94 showed that the highest income group took almost 40% of the government spending and the poorest group received only 14%. If these loans are introduced they are likely that they will be targeted disproportionately to the rich. It is about time that the issue of targeting the benefits from public sector spending to the poor was re-examine.

Some policy makers have remained sceptical about the feasibility of student loans for fear that administrative costs and high default rates would outweigh any possible advantages. Other people argue that the fear of debt repayment would discourage students from low income families from pursuing education.

### **3.3.8 Privatization of Education**

Another way of sharing the responsibilities for financing education is the privatization of schools. The households were asked if they were in favour of the government privatizing schools that are currently owned by the government. About 60% of the respondents to this question did not like the idea. This could be because almost half of the parents (52%) doubted the quality of education provided by non government schools. The performance of private school students at 'O' level, with the exception of Seminaries, has been relatively poor when compared to that of government schools. It has also been pointed out in previous discussions that, compared to government schools, most of the private secondary schools have very few qualified and trained teachers and also face critical shortages of teaching and instructional materials. The financial implications of private education were another reason behind the negative responses.

A regional comparison showed that the idea of privatisation was rejected more by respondents from Iringa region, as indicated by 73% of the respondents. The negative response was mainly because they were more dissatisfied by the quality of education provided by private institutions. Households from the rural areas did not favour the proposal (62%) because of their inability to pay for the costs of the education of their sons and daughters. The decision on this matter did not depend on the gender, age or status of the respondent but there was a relationship with the level of education. It was revealed that the lower the education the higher the rejection ratings. This is not surprising since, as noted earlier, education has a bearing on income. The same arguments can be raised for the negative responses received from the respondents whose occupation was farming and who mainly depend on agriculture as their main source of incomes. The farmers and agriculturalists live in the rural areas where the incomes are relatively lower than in town areas where business people and office employees who are more assured of their incomes from industrial and office work live. The income factor was also clearly shown when the data was analyzed by income groups. It was indicated that the level of incomes had a positive relationship with the response to the privatization issue. Another possible explanation is that most of the respondents with high incomes are found in urban areas where information flow is easier and quicker compared to that in the countryside. The exchange of information and the level of understanding issues in town centres have an influence on the responses to the issue of privatization of education.

### **3.3.9 Cost Efficiency**

In education, like any other sector, efficiency of investment made in the form of teachers, buildings and others is assessed in terms of cost to produce and the school products i.e. graduates. Efficiency

in our schools is regarded to be low. At primary level of education, for example, efficiency is affected by low enrolments and low retention rates as well as high repetition and drop out rates.

The officials at the MOEC think that current resources available to schools can produce more output by establishing and expanding day secondary schools as opposed to boarding schools. This will eliminate accommodation and food expenses. Savings can also be made through economic purchase of school supplies. Funds saved by these actions may be used for other expenses such as teachers' salaries and allowances and teaching materials.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATION

#### 4.1 Introduction

The delivery of education services in Tanzania is also faced with managerial problems. The problem is compounded by lack of coordination at various educational and administrative levels. The reporting channels at primary school level, for example, is complicated by the dual reporting system to the central government as well as to the local authorities. Financial limitations also affect the management of schools. Some questions on managerial issues were raised with teachers as well as with the households. The areas looked at in this issue are: the reporting structure, the management and control of funds, the local community participation and the critical problems facing schools.

#### 4.2 Reporting Structure by Schools

At present there are matters regarding primary education that are reported to the Ministry of Education and Culture while others are presented to the Department of Local Government in the Office of the Prime Minister. Teachers are under the MOEC, but, for the day to day activities, the heads of schools report to local authorities. Salaries for teachers, for example, come from local governments. The heads of schools were asked whether they were happy with this system and were also requested to indicate their preferences. The responses from the teachers revealed that the majority of the schools (66%) were not happy with the current dual reporting system. The problem was more pronounced in Coast region (82%) and to a less extent in Iringa (60%). The respondents pointed out the need for a change of this system. The school heads preferred to report to the Ministry of Education and Culture rather than to the Prime Minister's Office. 77% of the teachers were in favour of this arrangement and only 23% preferred to report to the Prime Minister's Office. Regional analysis showed that almost all schools in the Coast region (96%) did not want to deal with the Prime Minister's Office. This was because Coast region hated the current system. The preference for change did not depend on either the location or ownership of schools. Even the Headmasters and Headmistresses of secondary schools thought that primary schools should be directly under the MOEC to avoid the existing managerial and administrative problems.

67% of schools wanted to report to the MOEC through the Regional Education Officers. Coast region was leading (82%) in preferring the Ministry followed by Morogoro was behind with 67%. It was revealed that the preferences were related to the level of education and ownership of schools. The majority primary school representatives (83%) wanted to report through the REOs while those of secondary schools (42%) wanted to report school boards. It seemed that teachers at secondary level of education would like more involvement from local people through school boards and committees.

Further analysis of the responses the responses reflected the ownership of these schools. As expected, government schools preferred the Ministry through the REOs while private and religious schools preferred their respective boards. Usually, heads of schools have to report to their employers and owners of their respective schools. At the moment government schools are not owned by school boards or committees but most of the board members of non government schools are also part owners of these schools. This is why government schools mentioned the Ministry while private schools indicated school boards and committees. There were no differences in the

preference noted between rural and urban schools but all schools in both areas followed the general trend of reporting to the Ministry through the REOs.

### 4.3 Control of Funds

#### i) General Picture

Management and control of financial resources was another area of concern. The current practice is that most of the school funds are not controlled directly by the schools themselves. This has problems related with accountability and other problems resulting from bureaucracy. The respondents were asked to indicate their preferences on who should oversee school funds. The heads of schools differed with the households on this question and the results are summarised in Table 5.1 and Table 5.2. While 33% of the teachers wanted the District Education Officers, the households wanted school boards (39%). The second preference of the teachers was school boards (27%) but that of the household was the Regional Education Officers (31%). The third choice for the households was the DEOs while that of schools was the REOs.

#### ii) Control of Funds by Level of Education

The majority of primary schools (40%) liked the DEOs while secondary schools (46%) liked school boards. The results based on the education level of schools (primary and secondary) show that the views of these two groups indicated that the authority to which they are to report to should have an upper hand on the control of funds. Primary schools would like to see that both the reporting and financial control systems are under the current structure i.e. regional/district authorities while secondary schools prefer school boards for both responsibilities.

**Table 4.1 Overall Preference of the Control of Funds**

Type of Respondent	First Preference	Second Preference	Third Preference
School Heads	DEOs	School Boards	REOs
Households	School Boards	REOs	DEOs

#### iii) Control of Funds by Region

Regional analysis (Table 4.2) showed that Iringa (48%) and Coast (41%) preferred the DEOs while Dar (42%) and Morogoro (37%) preferred school boards. A comparison of the responses between schools and households showed that while schools in Iringa preferred DEOs (48%) the households preferred REOs (44%). In Coast region schools preferred DEOs (41%) while households wanted school boards (43%). There were no differences of preference between schools and households in Dar and Morogoro regions (Table 4.2). Both types of respondents in these regions wanted school funds to be under the control of school boards. Rural-based schools wanted both the DEOs (31%) and the heads of schools while equal number of respondents in urban centres wanted the DEOs and the school boards. On the whole both the heads of schools and the households, who are mainly parents, want the control of school funds to be under school management i.e. school boards and committees.

**Table 4.2: Preferred Mode of Financial Controls by Region and Type of Respondents**

REGION	TYPE OF RESPONDENTS	
	<i>Schools</i>	<i>Households</i>
Coast	DEOs (41%)	School Boards (43%)
Dar es Salaam	School Boards (42%)	School Boards (44%)
Iringa	DEOs (48%)	REOs (44%)
Morogoro	School Boards (32%)	School Boards (41%)

The responses from both groups of respondents, especially the households, show the need to decentralize the management of the education system in the country. This is in order since it has been noted earlier that the managerial participation of parents and the community in schools will enhance their financial obligations. Financial responsibilities need managerial support for the decision making process. This kind of participation will in turn involve both the teachers and the parents in running their respective schools. This kind of thinking was also expressed by about 90% of the households who wanted to see the community, at large, and the parents, in particular, to take part in running the affairs of their respective schools. The idea of decentralization was also expressed by the officials of the Ministry of Education and Culture.

#### **4.4 Fixing Fees**

##### **4.4.1 Fees**

It was noted earlier that the government has fixed the limit of school fees that can be charged so as to protect the students from exploitation. Another reason was to make sure that the would be participants in education are not driven away because of high charges. Heads of schools and households were asked to express their views on who should determine the amount of money to be paid in respect of school fees and other contributions. The choice was between the government, school boards, heads of schools and local authorities. On the whole, the determination of fees was thought to be the responsibility mainly of the government and school boards. The preference of a government role in fixing fees was expressed by 45% of the teachers and by 56% of the households. School boards got 33% and 30% from the teachers and households, respectively. About 14% of the heads of schools said that they themselves should have a say in this matter. The involvement of the members of school boards and the heads of schools is needed because these two groups are close to the parents and understand their financial capabilities. It is assumed, therefore, that school boards and teachers will consider the incomes of the parents while determining the amount of school fees and other contributions. Another factor for their involvement in financial matters is because both the teachers and the households have proposed the school boards to control school funds. It has been pointed out that the local community and parents have to play a role in the running of their schools. The participation of the local community in this matter will be through the members of the school boards which should represent parents. The government has to see to it that the fees are not fixed above the ability of parents to pay.

When the responses were analyzed by education level it was noted that while most of secondary school teachers (65%) wanted the boards to fix fees, only 24% of the primary school teachers

wanted this. Primary schools preferred the government (50%). Another difference noted between primary and secondary schools is that more teachers from primary schools wanted the involvement of the heads of schools. The percentage of primary school teachers was about three times that of secondary school teachers. Local governments were seen to have a very small role as indicated by secondary schools which did not like any involvement from local authorities and only 10% of all primary schools wanted the involvement of local authorities.

The respondents from private schools wanted the participation of only the government and school boards on an equal basis i.e at 50% each. Religious schools did not want any involvement from either the government or local authorities but wanted the school boards (86%) to have a veto in this matter. The results should not be a surprise because the government has no ownership in these schools and does not provide any financial assistance to religious schools. As expected, about half of the respondents from government schools wanted the government and about a quarter pointed out school boards. School boards in community schools are expected to be the main players (73%) in this matter. All non government groups did not like the participation of the local government in fixing fees. Ownership of schools has an influence on who should fix and control school funds.

#### **4.4.2 Other Contributions**

On the question of other contributions to be made, the school boards have been noted to play a big role in determining the types and the amount of contributions to be made. This was expressed by 61% of the teachers and 57% of the households who responded to this question. This is in order because the school boards are the ones who know the needs of their respective schools and hence are the right bodies to determine the amount to be contributed by various agents. The government involvement in this matter was given a lower rate of 12% compared to 19% given to heads of schools.

As for the case of school fees, school boards are preferred by more secondary schools (72%) than primary schools (59%). The trend for the participation of other groups (government, heads of schools and local authorities) is like the one observed in the case of fees. The only exception is that some role has to be played by local governments in deciding on contributions while it was not the case when considering fees. This is because local governments are concerned with the development, including education, in their respective areas of jurisdiction.

Community and religious schools would not wish to see government being involved in this matter. Most schools, disregarding their ownership, wanted decision on this issue to come mainly from school boards. More heads of religious schools (45%) wanted to participate in determining the amount to be paid in terms of contributions. Again, it was observed that both religious and privately owned schools thought that local governments should not be invited in this matter. Slightly over a quarter of community schools wanted local government to play a role. The participation of local governments in community schools is obvious because local governments are part of the owners of these schools and provide some funds to these types of schools.

#### **4.5 Management of Education Funds**

One of the major problems with the management of education finances in the country include, among other things, lack of accounting, auditing and the misappropriation of funds. Ideally education finance, like any other public finances, is required to be audited annually. Very few schools adhere to this requirement due to the lack of accounting skills among head teachers and

negligence on the part of the authority on the use of education funds. Another problem relating to the management of school funds has to do with auditing. Auditing activities are hindered by the lack of qualified personnel at district level. Some people have suggested that school boards can appoint their own auditors when a government auditor is not available in order to avoid accumulating a backlog of un audited accounts. Considering the financial constraints facing schools this suggestion may not be easy to implement. Schools have no spare funds for these activities. Contributions from the parents towards auditing purposes may not be possible because of weak financial ability. The other alternative is to let school boards do pre-auditing then post auditing by government could be an easy task. Pre-audit school boards can discuss and approve any appropriation and expenditure for schools. This would give authority to the headteacher to use funds. Post audit, then, would mean to verify that funds were spent in accordance with approved minutes of the board. Should this take place, then headteachers need only take to the district authorities the board's minutes and evidence that the expenditure and appropriation were done in accordance with the minutes.

#### **4.6 Local Community Participation in School Management**

70 % of the households, who responded to the question on whether they took part in the running of schools, gave positive responses. More responses on participation came from rural based schools than those in urban centres. Further examination revealed that, in future, the households would like more involvement from the community in school matters as indicated by about 90% of the respondents. To ensure that their wishes in participating in the management of schools are met, the households wanted school authority to be decentralised to the lowest level. On average 60%, 50% and 30% of the respondents expressed the opinion that the management of schools be decentralised to regional, district and village levels, respectively. Again, compared with urban residents, the respondents from rural areas wanted more participation at the village level.

#### **4.7 Some Critical Problems**

Schools, like any other type of training institutions, face various problems which affect the quality of education provided. School representatives as well as households were given an open-ended question on what they thought were the three main critical problems facing their institutions. The problem of inadequacy of funds to run schools was pointed out as the first critical problem. This was followed by the shortage of teaching and instructional materials such as textbooks. The third main problem mentioned was lack of proper buildings. Other problems included shortage of staff houses, lack of utilities especially water, shortage of classrooms which resulted in overcrowding. Transport facilities and truancy were also cited as problem areas in schools that were covered by this study. Truancy was also pointed out by schools to be the main factor behind high student drop out rates. The respondents of the two groups were also given a list of problems which were perceived to be problems facing schools and were required to rank any three which they thought were the main problem areas. The views of both groups had more or less the same ranking and the results did not differ from what had been mentioned in the previous paragraph. The problem of insufficient funds was the most serious in all schools at all levels of education.

The community and religious schools suffer more than government and private owned ones from the lack of adequate funds. As pointed out earlier, government schools are more assured of funding than non government schools. The problem of shortage of teaching materials does not feature as common in religious schools. This is in line with what was pointed out when we discussed the



availability of instructional materials. Transport facilities seems to affect both religious and community schools while government schools suffer from the poor state of the infrastructure.

The lack of adequate funds was pointed out, by both teachers and households, to be very critical in Iringa and Morogoro regions. Both groups of respondents in Coast region agreed that the poor state of buildings was the most critical problem facing their schools. The problem of transport was pointed out by schools in Dar es Salaam region. Households in Iringa also that said their schools were experiencing a shortage of teaching staff. The shortage of teachers was pointed out by rural based households to be the second critical problem facing education in Tanzania.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Summary of Findings**

This chapter puts together the main summaries for each of the chapters.

##### **5.1.1 Enrolment Growth**

The enrolment in primary schools has risen, on average, by 12.4% between 1990 and 1994 and there has been no marked gender differences in the enrolment during this period. The GER during this period remained almost constant at 74% meaning that about a quarter of children have not been going to school. Secondary school enrolment rose by 24% and the private sector accounted for about 57% of all students in secondary schools. However, the enrolment of 13.3% of the total primary school leavers into secondary education is still low.

On the whole, there has been an increase in the girls participation at all levels of secondary education although the rates declined as the level of education increased. The decrease could be due to the drop out problem as a result of student pregnancies, early marriages and truancy. The decline was more pronounced in non government schools. The excess decline in private schools could be due to the lack of financial requirements.

##### **5.1.2 Repetition and Dropout Rates**

This problem was experienced by all schools at both levels of education. Repetition occurred more in classes four and five and more for girls than the boys. Regional analysis revealed that Iringa faced this problem more than other regions under this study.

By 1994, about 35% of all students who had joined primary schools between 1984 and 1988 did not complete their primary education. The dropouts were mainly in classes one and four. The main reasons for high dropouts were truancy, student pregnancies, family problems and early marriages. Truancy was common among the boys while pregnancy was common among the girls. Among the boys, truancy is observed more in urban areas and in primary schools.

Truancy was more serious in Dar es Salaam region where about 90% of the dropout cases were due to this factor. Truancy was mainly caused by a poor learning environment and too many self-reliance activities in schools, lack of discipline among the students and laxity on the part of parents in disciplining their children.

The incidences of adolescent pregnancy cases were observed more in Coast and Morogoro regions. Traditions and culture in societies were considered to be the main factors behind these pregnancies and early marriages. Economic hardships and lack of discipline are among other factors contributing to the problem of pregnancies and early marriages of school girls.

Most of the dropouts end up working in farms and others join the informal sector as house girls, house boys and petty traders in urban centres. A few are engaged in petty crime and drugs.

### **5.1.3 Student Performance in Secondary Education**

Student performance, for the last five years, has been of great concern. Failure rates have risen from 20.4% in 1990 to 22.4% in 1994. About one-fifth of Form IV candidates are failures and slightly more than half of the candidates have been awarded Division IV while Division I awards have declined from 8% in 1990 to 3%. Poor performance has been observed more in non government schools mainly due to lack of teaching facilities and qualified teachers. Poor performance has been largely due to the poor teaching and learning environment in schools.

From the available data it can be concluded that the low performance of students may be attributed to poor learning environmental factors in schools, which need to be addressed if the situation has to be arrested. These include:

- a) Insufficient supply of teaching materials such as textbooks, reference books, teaching aids and scientific equipment.
- b) Lack of qualified and competent teaching staff, especially in non-government schools.
- c) Low motivation among the teachers due to uncertain and low salaries and other fringe benefits.
- d) Establishment of new secondary schools without basic pre-requisites.
- e) Lack of proper action to eliminate operational problems facing the inspectorate division.
- f) Non conducive teaching and learning environment in schools.
- g) Lack of good cooperation between school management and parents which leaves room for indiscipline among students, especially those in urban areas, and finally,
- h) Insufficient funds for schools to acquire the essential inputs of education.

### **5.1.4 Staff Levels and Qualifications**

Between 1992 and 1994 Grade A teachers in primary schools accounted for only 35%. Dar es Salaam had the highest percentage of Grade A teachers (45%) while Coast was the most disadvantaged region.

The shortage of teachers was more pronounced at the secondary level of education. The MOEC had a total shortfall of 1,825 teachers in government schools. The problem was more acute in rural areas. Limited supply of teaching staff, the decline of enrolment of teacher trainees and the high failure rates are the factors that have contributed to the shortage of secondary school teachers. Secondary schools still employ unqualified teaching staff which accounted for 17% of all employed teachers. It was observed that 34% of all the teachers in private schools had no teaching qualifications compared to 3% in government schools.

### **5.1.5 Physical Infrastructure**

The availability of physical resources has been declining from year to year. The regions covered by this study were worse off in terms of tables, chairs and staff houses. Coast region was the hardest hit in all aspects. Staff housing was mentioned to be the most critical problem in Dar es Salaam. The infrastructure in most private and community schools has been poor because of low investments.

### **5.1.6 Instructional Materials**

Instructional materials were either non-existent or, where they were available, their supplies were insufficient. Textbooks and teaching aids were insufficient while scientific equipments were not available in most schools. Primary and rural schools were worse off than secondary and urban schools.

### **5.1.7 Cost of Education and Household Spending**

With the available data, the annual cost of education in 1995 was US \$46 per student at primary level and US \$170 at secondary level. These costs differed by the ownership and the nature of schools. The actual amount paid by the parents was slightly lower than the estimated costs. For primary school education the parents paid 76% of the estimated cost of \$46 and 74% of secondary education expenses estimated at \$170. The differences were paid for by other actors including the government and other donors. Spending depended on the education level, location and the level of incomes of the parents. Parents in urban areas with high incomes spent more than their counterparts in rural areas.

### **5.1.8 Sources and Uses of School Funds**

Current school funds come mainly from four sources: the Government 73%, parents 13%, donor agencies 8% and the schools themselves provide 6% through self-help schemes.

The government tended to contribute higher proportions of total school funds to urban and secondary schools. About 40% of funds for primary schools came from self-help schemes run by the schools themselves. The majority of the respondents were of the opinion that more financial responsibilities have to be passed on to the parents and the communities. All the teachers and the households think that the government should be the only agent responsible for staff salaries but parents pay for student uniforms.

Primary schools spend about 70% of their funds on staff salaries while most of funds available for secondary schools to salaries (30%) and student welfare (30%).

### **5.1.9 Cost Sharing**

The parents and the communities have been contributing to the education expenses of their children in the form of school fees, uniforms, physical infrastructures and in the provision of school supplies and managerial services. The scheme, favoured more by private and secondary schools, was to supplement government resources in financing education services in running their schools.

Parents expressed their willingness to contribute towards education expenses although this was hindered by their financial inability because of general poverty. The ability was an inhibiting factor in parents' willingness to pay for education. The implementation of cost sharing faced problems of collecting the required contributions mainly because the parents do not have the capacity to pay.

Cost sharing was regarded to be to the disadvantage of the poor and both the parents and teachers have expressed their concern for the students who cannot afford educational expenses. The only way to make education accessible to and equal to these children is to assist them. The government,

donor community, local governments and local communities are expected to come to the assistance of such children.

#### **5.1.10 Privatization of Schools**

The majority of parents do not like privatization of the existing schools because of the poor quality of education provided due to the lack of qualified teachers and of teaching materials. The second reason, especially among the rural people, was the financial implications which the parents cannot meet because of the prevailing economic difficulties. The parents, however, were not against the establishment of new private schools because they are aware of the government's ability to establish new public ones.

The results of the study on financing education services indicate that:

- a) The bulk of education services are financed by the government which has to continue playing a big part in financing this sector.
- b) Both the teachers and the households think that the government has to make a financial contribution to non-government schools. There is a need to re-examine this matter seriously and critically.
- c) The government has to examine readjust its practice which favours urban based and secondary schools in the allocation of funds.
- d) Contributions by parents was considered low compared to the actual costs. It was the feelings of the respondents that these should be increased. This is an indication that cost sharing is a viable way of supplementing government resources in the provision of education services.
- e) Despite the higher fees and other financial obligations required by private schools in the country, the majority of secondary school students are enrolled in private schools. These results have indicated that parents are ready to invest in good quality education services for their children.
- f) Since cost sharing is likely to force pupils from poor families out of school, impoverished families are to be exempted from this kind of contribution. A screening mechanism becomes important.

#### **5.1.11 The Managerial aspects**

The heads of schools were not satisfied with the existing dual reporting system at the primary level of education. This was disclosed by two thirds of the school representatives. Over three quarters of the teachers wanted all school matters to be directly under the MOEC through the REOs. Again Coast region, which hated the current system most, led other regions in making this suggestion. School ownership and education level offered by schools covered by this study tended to influence the preference of the type of authority to report to. Most of the primary schools (83%) wanted to report to REOs while a good number of the secondary schools (42%) wanted school boards. While government schools chose REOs non public schools preferred school boards.

On the issue of financial management, the majority of the respondents (teachers and households) were of the opinion that school funds should be managed and controlled by the concerned school management bodies i.e. boards or committees. The government was to play its part through the DEOs.

The respondents were of the opinion that the government should continue playing a big role in determining the amount of fees charged by schools. School management authorities were also suggested to assist the government in this matter. Primary schools preferred the government machinery while secondary schools preferred school management. Ownership of schools had a relationship with the question of who should fix fees. Government owned schools wanted the government machinery while school management was liked by non government schools. Local authorities were not regarded to play any major role in this matter.

On the whole, households wanted more participation in school matters and rural schools gave high rates for the involvement of local participation in running schools. The respondents also wanted the management of schools to be decentralized so that village governments could also have a say in school matters.

These results from the respondents had implications of more participation of local communities, parents and teachers in matters affecting their respective schools. This would help to enhance discipline and smooth running of schools in the country.

#### **5.1.12 Critical Problems**

The inadequacy of funds and the shortage of teaching materials were mentioned to be critical problems facing the education sector in the country. Religious and community schools have problems of transport facilities and Dar region is affected most. The shortage of teaching staff has affected Iringa most severely. The problem of the poor state of buildings is most critical in Coast region.

### **5.2 Policy Recommendations**

#### **5.2.1 Introduction**

The changes in the social sectors, including education, require new thinking on the role of the government and the need to invest in human capital. The experiences in the 1980s have indicated the need for flexibility, diversification of the sources of education funds and responsiveness to demand in the delivery process. There is a need to pay attention to sustainable financing and establishing priorities for government, donor and community spending in this sector. The government has to consider the ways and means of consolidating its role towards delivery of education services and at the same time liberalize the environment for the private sector participation. The government has also to recognise the need of the active role of the household in investing in education. The household is to be perceived as an active participant in choosing and supporting the education services rather than as a passive recipient of publicly-provided services. Communities should regard schools as their "community schools" and hence support them with contributions in cash and in kind. It is expected that the active role of the households will revive self-help spirit and contribute to the improvement of the quality of education services and extend the financial base. Another expected benefit from the active participation of the households or parents is that schools will be made more accountable to the communities for the funds made available to them than the current practice.

#### **5.2.2 Enrolment growth**

In order to increase enrolment rates in schools, there is a need to encourage private schools and to assist disadvantaged children, including girls. Projects initiated by organisations such as the World Bank, Plan International and the NETF should be enhanced.

There is a need to look into the possibility of increasing day secondary schools. Day schools need less funds than boarding schools. This measure will increase the number of students without necessarily increasing inputs in the same proportions. This will also enable an increase in the intake of more girls.

### **5.2.3 The Problem of Dropouts**

There is an urgent need for the teachers as well as the parents to address the factors contributing to the dropout. The root causes have to be studied and solutions to be found.

While both boys and girls are affected by high dropout rates, **female survival** in schools is hampered by unique problems caused by a complex of inter-related socio-cultural and biological factors. Pregnancy is perceived to be one of them. Urgent measures must be taken to avoid a potentially explosive situation, where girls are sexually and economically exploited and their talents under-utilised. There is a need to study the extent, consequences of and policy responses to the problem of female dropout, and those related to pregnancies and early marriages.

Some laws on children need to be reviewed so as to combat child labour, truancy and enhance their rights. For instance, the 1971 Marriage Act allows girls below 18 years to get married and UPE Act allows kids below 18 years to finish their primary education and seek employment.

Let local authorities institute bye-laws to bind parents to follow up their children's performance and attendance at schools.

Many children do not know their rights hence need to be sensitized.

### **5.2.4 Student Performance**

Ample evidence has been established that poor performance in examinations hinges on the poor learning and teaching environment that exists in schools. The following issues need to be addressed by education providers and managers.

- a) The MOEC should make sure that schools are established according to the required standards and that no school should operate without meeting all the basic pre-requisites as has been the case currently.
- b) The inspectorate division needs additional resource in order to perform its tasks properly.
- c) Tanzania faces a shortage of teachers and at the same time faces the problem of unemployment of students from secondary and tertiary institutions. These unemployed ex-students can join the training profession. Let the REOs be involved in the recruitment of trainees and employ them after training. Private teachers training colleges could also help in the alleviation of the shortage of teachers.

### **5.2.5 Financing of Education**

There is no doubt that to improve the quality of education, one requires adequate funding. In response to the government's inability to meet the demand for education and in recognition of the fact that education benefits both the individual recipient and the society in general, various alternatives of financing education have to be sought. The government has to implement, without further delay, most of the recommendations made by the 1992 Presidential Commission on Education. The alternative ways of financing education are enumerated below.

#### **i. Government (50%)**

Children, wherever they may be, have a right to expect a future and education is a means for the future. The government has the main responsibility for providing education to its children. The government, therefore, has to remain the main provider of education. It is recommended that the government contributes about 50% of the expenditure required by the education sector.

While the need for a modernised army is recognised, this objective should not be pursued to the detriment of the development of education which has been receiving less funds in comparison with defence. Education ought to have greater share of public funds than the armed forces.

#### **ii Cost Sharing by Students/Parents (25%)**

As revealed by the study the majority of parents are willing to contribute more towards education services provided their qualities are improved. One can therefore argue that it was justifiable for the introduction of user charges which need to be reviewed regularly to be in line with the actual costs. For a start, parents may contribute about 25% of the total cost of educating a child.

#### **iii. Private Sector**

Private sector seems to be another alternative for picking up the support for education services by establishing schools and teachers' training colleges. The Private sector can help improve the efficiency, quality and flexibility of education system. It is suggested that all procedures in the establishment of private schools have to be streamlined. Education ventures need substantial amount of capital and financial assistance may be required, in terms of credit facilities, to the private sector.

#### **iv. Community Finances (10%)**

Local communities may participate by providing financial contributions. Those who cannot afford cash may contribute in kind such as the provision of labour, for example brick making. The ways and means to raise funds for schools include special fund raising activities, compulsory levies and donations. These strategies have been practised in many African countries including Kenya (Harambees), Ghana and Nigeria.

#### **v. Local Authorities (10%)**

Local authorities might raise funds for education by introducing levies on business enterprises in their areas of jurisdiction.

#### **vii. Donor Agencies (5%)**

Donor agencies, local as well as foreign, business enterprises and individuals should be encouraged to contribute towards funding the education. Special attention is to be paid to the disadvantaged children including girls.

#### **viii. Schools**

Schools should not be considered as one source of school funds. Self help schemes should be for academic and not for economic purposes. This will minimize the problem of truancy and reduce the dropout rates.

### **5.2.6 Needy Students**

To meet the objective of equity and accessibility some exemptions and waivers to some groups of students have to be provided. The main reasons for such exemptions is that cost sharing should not deter some students and parents from participating in education and or force pupils to drop out of



schools and join the labour force. Let the government and donor funds be used to assist needy students.

#### **5.2.7 Community and Family Assistance**

Communities and parents know what needs to be done for their children. What is required is for the government and other aid agencies to provide the means and support for the communities based on proposals and priorities established by the communities themselves. Such support programmes may enable the parents to increase their incomes so as to provide a better life for their children, including education, nutrition and health care.

The study has shown that the most affected and hardest hit in the participation of education are the people who live in the country side. There is an urgent need to assist the rural poor in their main income generating activity i.e. agriculture. Family assistance may include: i) the provision of loans and credit programme to farmers to enable them to make the most productive use of land and gain maximum profit from the produce, ii) the provision of new equipment and farming methods will bring about better harvests, iii) the provision of better storage facilities will minimize wastage and also enable the farmers to sell when the prices are highest.

#### **5.2.8 Managerial Issues**

Primary as well as secondary education should be under one ministry, preferably, the MOEC, so as to avoid the problems of dual reporting systems in the primary education sub-sector.

Let the management of education and associated financial responsibilities be decentralised at village level through REOs and DEOs. Sectoral policies that empower schools and communities to control the education of their children can be established.

#### **5.2.9 Further Research Undertakings**

Following this study, further research work proposed to be done include:

- a) The study on the root causes of school dropouts which should address socio-economic and cultural factors. The optimum ways of assisting poor households will also have to be addressed.
- b) A detailed study on the female survival in schools whereby the extent, consequences of and policy responses to the problems related to pregnancies and early marriages could be critically examined.
- c) Further work should be done, on a continuous basis, on the implementation of the World bank recommendations on two projects: Community Education Fund and Girls Secondary School Support Programme. The proposed work would involve monitoring the progress pointing out the weaknesses and making necessary changes. Full community participation in running schools would also be enhanced through seminars and campaigns during the implementation of the proposed work in this area.

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## Comparable Elements with Other Countries in this Study

NO	AREA	INDICATIONS
1	Do parents pay for education	. Parents contribute about 13% of school funds and pay for uniforms, fees and stationery.
2	Difficulties in paying	. About 75% of parents, especially in rural, areas had difficulties.
3	Willingness to pay	. Majority of parents are ready to pay.
4	Ability to pay	. Only 25% responded positively mainly because of incomes.
5	Will fees reduce chance for education?	. For the poor families, esp. at secondary level.
6	Are parents in favour of cost-sharing?	. Cost-sharing exists in about 90% of schools and 74% of the teachers favoured it. . 92% of households participated in the scheme and about 80% favoured it.
7	Who should pay for education ? (Household responses)	. <b>Government</b> : 59% but mainly salaries (100%), administrative costs, materials and books. . <b>Parents</b> : 25% but mainly uniforms (100%), UPE and transport to school. . <b>Community</b> : 1% esp. maintenance. . <b>Local Authority</b> : 9% esp. maintenance.
8	Rating of school management	. Parents rated school management to be fairly good.
9	School/Community management	. Needs to be strengthened.
10	Teacher quality	. Rated good
11	Availability of physical materials	. On average the adequacy of facilities was about 40% of school requirements. Most critical items were staff houses, cupboards, toilets and chairs.
12	Availability of teaching materials	. Items whose supplies were over 75% insufficient were textbooks, teaching aids and books. . Most scientific and computing equipment was not available especially in rural areas. . About 64% of parents expressed concern on this matter.
13	Availability of staff	. Acute shortage of teachers to the extent that some schools are manned by untrained teachers.
14	Staff qualifications	. There are unqualified teachers in some schools;

		Grade B/C in primary schools accounted for 63% while secondary schools had 17% untrained teachers and 17% degree holders in 1994															
15	Perceived willingness to pay	. 50% of the teachers said yes but only 25% expressed parents' ability to pay.															
16	Who pays (School responses)	<p>Sources of school funds:</p> <table> <thead> <tr> <th></th><th>Current %</th><th>Desired %</th></tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Government</td><td>73</td><td>61</td></tr> <tr> <td>Parents</td><td>13</td><td>19</td></tr> <tr> <td>Donors</td><td>8</td><td>10</td></tr> <tr> <td>Schools</td><td>6</td><td>10</td></tr> </tbody> </table>		Current %	Desired %	Government	73	61	Parents	13	19	Donors	8	10	Schools	6	10
	Current %	Desired %															
Government	73	61															
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17	Who should pay (School responses)	<p><b>Government:</b> 65% but mainly salaries (100%), exams fees (91%), boarding and administrative costs and tuition fees.</p> <p><b>Parents:</b> 25% mainly uniforms (100%), UPE and transport to schools.</p> <p><b>Community:</b> 3% esp. maintenance.</p> <p><b>Local Authorities:</b> 7% mainly for maintenance and materials.</p>															
18	Problems of collection of contributions	<p>. Over 68% of teachers pointed out this problem.</p> <p>. Households pointed out the inability to pay.</p>															
19	Management problems	<p>. Over 66% said that the dual reporting system in primary schools was considered to be improper.</p> <p>. About 75% of schools want to report to the MOEC through REOs and DEOs.</p> <p>. The control of funds has to be under districts and school management.</p> <p>. About 70% of households were said to be participating in school matters and would like to see more decentralisation of the education system.</p>															
20	Participation of public/private bodies in education	<p>. Private sector has established schools; 46 for primary education, 46 (1996) and 298 (1994) with about 57% of all students for secondary level.</p> <p>. Religious and Community organisations have established several schools.</p> <p>. NGOs and other donor agencies do support schools and individual students.</p>															

Chart I.1: Primary Education Enrolment, 1992-94

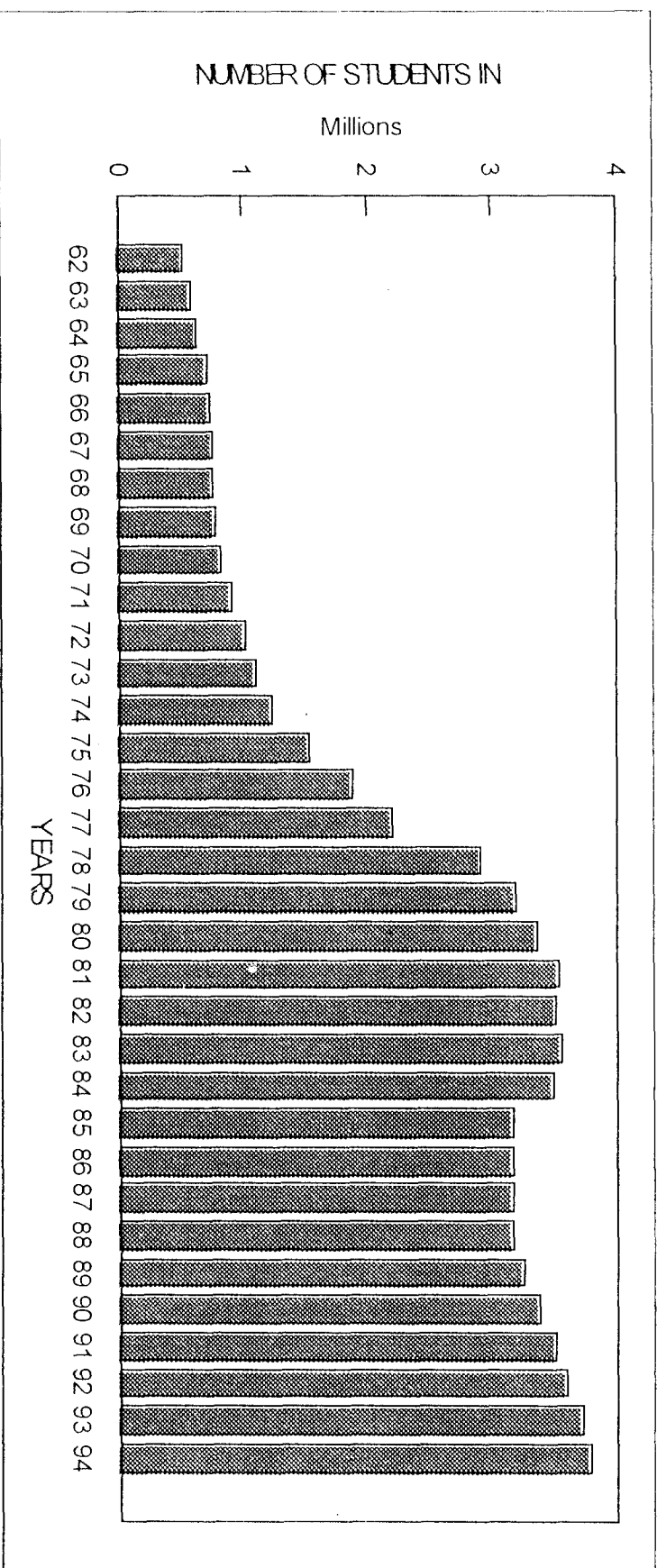


Chart I.2: Secondary Education Enrolment, 1962 - 94

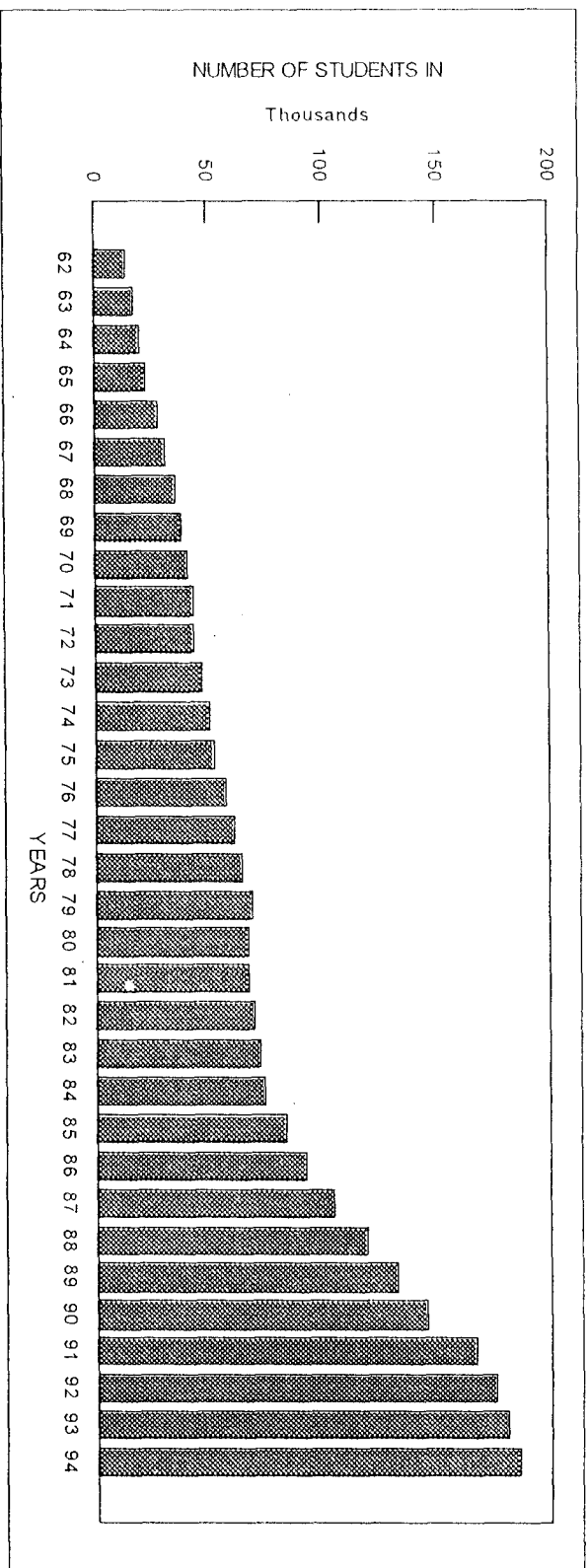


Chart 3.1: Qualifications of Teachers in Secondary Schools, 1994

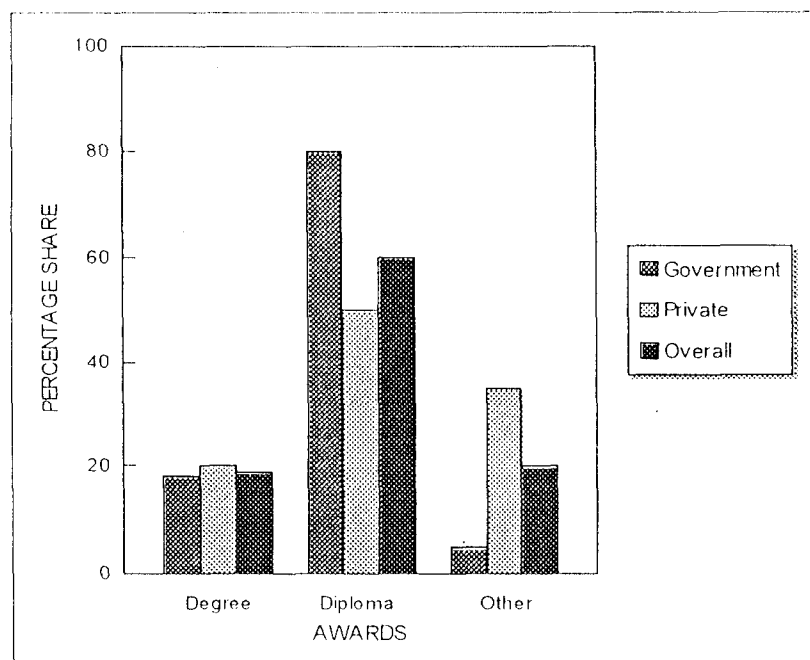


Chart 3.2: Inadequacy of Facilities by Region 1994

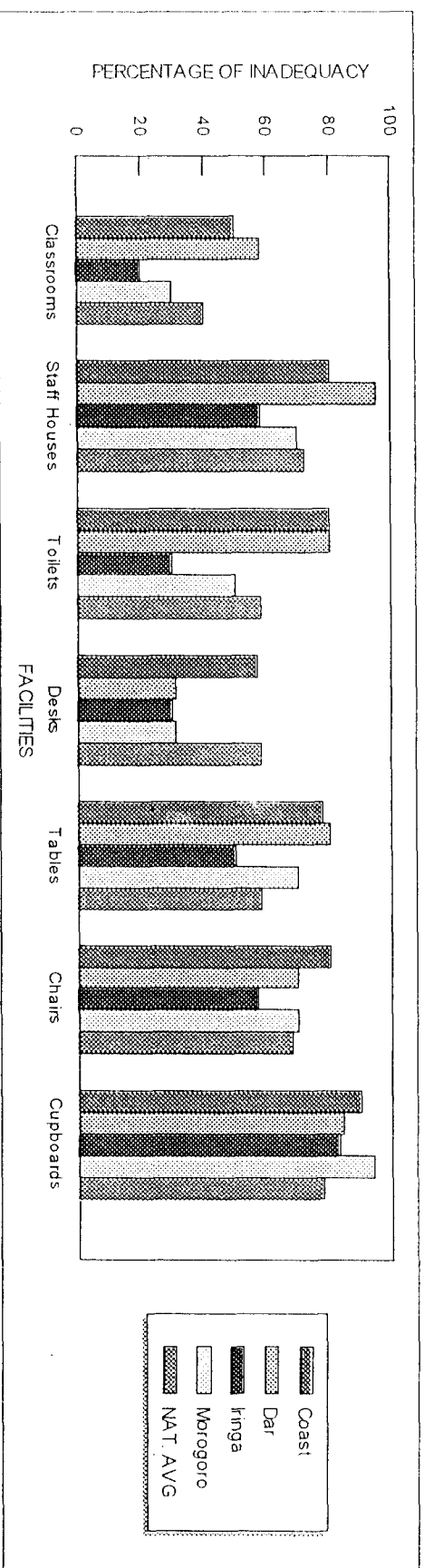




Chart 3.4: Current and Desired Sources of School Funds in %

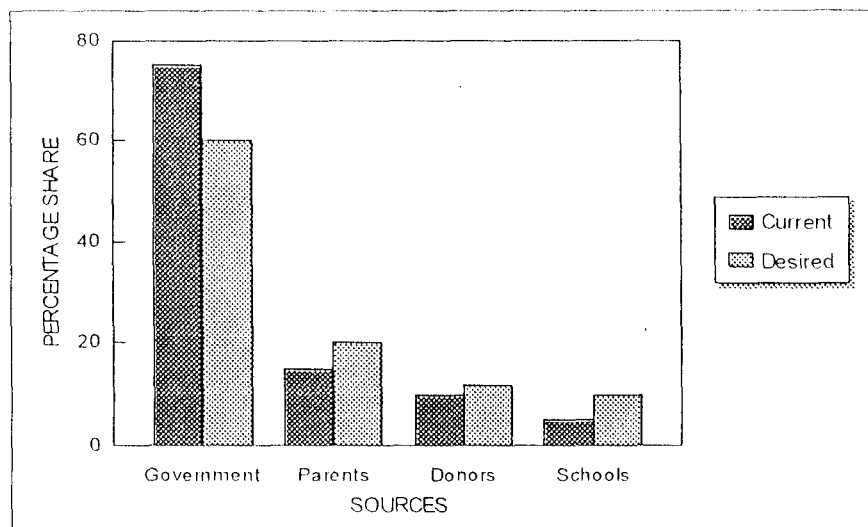


Chart 3.5: Profits from School Projects, 1990 - 1994

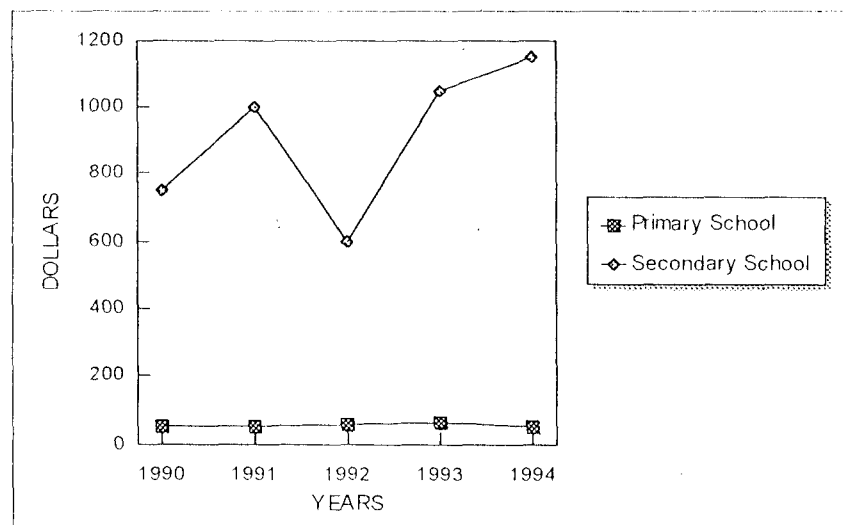


Table 1.1 Enrolment Ratios in Selected Countries for Selected Years

Country	Education Level	Overall			Female		
		1970	1990	1992	1970	1990	1992
Kenya	Primary	58	94	95	48	92	93
	Secondary	9	27	29	5	19	25
Tanzania	Primary	34	63	68	27	63	67
	Secondary	3	4	5	2	4	4
Uganda	Primary	38	76	71	30	NA	63
	Secondary	4	13	13	2	NA	NA
Zambia	Primary	90	93	97	80	91	92
	Secondary	13	20	31	8	14	26

Source:IBRD/World Bank, World Development Report 1995

Table 1.2 Budget Allocation to Education of Total Government Recurrent Expenditures, 1990/91-1993/94 (in US \$'000s.)

Year	Total Govt Budget	Education Share *		MOEC	Av. Tshs/ US \$
		Amount	Percent	% share	
1990/91 (Actual)	799,619	1106,668	13.3	6.3	201.80
1991/92 (Approved)	744,690	102,504	13.8	4.3	250.49
1992/93 (Budget)	739,571	90,996	12.3	3.5	340.12
1993/94 (Budget)	631,091	91,084	14.5	3.3	477.58

\* Includes MOEC, MST&HE, Teacher Service Commission and Department of Regional Administration and Local Government.

Source:MOEC, BEST(1995); Penrose (1992); World Bank, 1995.

**Table 1.3: Government Recurrent Spending on Education and Defence as Share of GDP**

	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95
Education	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.4
Defence	1.7	1.2	1.5	1.5	1.2

Source: World Bank (1995). The Challenge of Reforms, Growth and Income Welfare.

**Table 2.2 Girls Participation in Secondary Education in percentage, 1990 - 1994**

Level	Sector	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Form I	<b>Overall</b>	<b>43.6</b>	<b>45.2</b>	<b>45.6</b>	<b>44.9</b>	<b>45.8</b>
	Government	39.2	43.1	43.3	43.5	45.3
	Non-Government	46.7	46.7	47.2	46.0	46.2
Form IV	<b>Overall</b>	<b>41.1</b>	<b>42.5</b>	<b>42.8</b>	<b>43.2</b>	<b>43.4</b>
	Government	35.5	39.1	40.0	40.1	41.1
	Non-government	44.4	45.3	45.2	46.0	<b>45.3</b>
Form I-IV	<b>Overall</b>	<b>42.2</b>	<b>44.5</b>	<b>44.7</b>	<b>44.3</b>	<b>44.9</b>
	Government	37.8	41.7	42.2	42.0	43.6
	Non-Government	45.2	46.6	46.5	46.4	45.9
Form V	<b>Overall</b>	<b>19.8</b>	<b>25.5</b>	<b>27.3</b>	<b>30.4</b>	<b>31.6</b>
	Government	18.3	27.5	29.2	32.2	31.8
	Non-Government	23.2	21.6	23.6	26.9	31.4
Form VI	<b>Overall</b>	<b>23.4</b>	<b>24.3</b>	<b>24.3</b>	<b>27.8</b>	<b>27.1</b>
	Government	23.9	26.0	26.0	29.7	28.7
	Non-Government	22.1	35.7	20.4	24.2	24.2
Form V-VI	<b>Overall</b>	<b>22.6</b>	<b>24.9</b>	<b>25.9</b>	<b>29.1</b>	<b>29.5</b>
	Government	22.5	26.8	27.7	31.0	30.3
	Non-Government	22.7	21.2	22.1	25.6	28.3
Form I-VI	<b>Overall</b>	<b>41.5</b>	<b>43.2</b>	<b>43.4</b>	<b>43.3</b>	<b>43.9</b>
	Government	36.4	40.2	40.7	40.9	42.3
	Non-Government	45.3	45.6	45.6	45.3	45.1

Source: MOEC (BEST), June 1995

## Appendix 11

Table 2.3 Repetition Rates in Primary Schools by Gender, 1990 - 1994

YEAR	BOYS			GIRLS		
	Enroled	Repeaters		Enroled	Repeaters	
	No.	No.	% of enrolment	No.	No.	% of Enrolment
1990	1702180	70231	4.1	1671182	75521	4.5
1991	1775745	63710	3.6	1731639	67080	3.9
1992	1831843	55559	3.0	1767737	58557	3.3
1993	1897380	54414	2.9	1835563	56778	3.1
1994	1921172	55913	2.9	1872029	56414	3.0

Source: MOEC (BEST 1990-1994), June 1995

## Appendix 12

Table 2.4: Repetition Rates in Primary Schools by Region, 1991 - 1993

Year	Coast	Dar	Iringa	Morogoro	National Average
1991	5.6	2.3	5.3	2.8	4.3
1992	4.5	2.4	5.7	3.5	3.7
1993	3.5	2.0	4.8	3.2	3.2

## Appendix 13

Table 2.9 Form IV Examination Results in Percentage by Awards, 1990-1994

YEAR	DIVISION						NO. OF CANDIDATES
	I	II	III	IV	FAILED	TOTAL %	
1990	7.7	8.8	20.9	42.2	20.4	100	27677
1991	4.0	7.3	17.2	49.2	22.3	100	29985
1992	3.4	5.5	18.7	53.4	18.9	100	31522
1993	2.3	4.2	14.4	59.3	19.8	100	35025
1994	2.9	3.7	13.8	57.2	22.4	100	38362
AVERAGE	4.1	5.9	17.0	52.3	20.7	100	

Source: MOEC (BEST, 1990-1994), June 1995

Table 3.3: SHORTAGE OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Subject	O Level	A Level
Maths	168	100
Physics	140	48
Chemistry	141	55
Biology	203	50
Geography	165	20
History	75	20
Kilimo	105	0
English	55	15
Kiswahili	75	15
Domestic Science	135	0
Civics	75	15
Accounts	55	10
Economics	N/A	10
Technical subjects	75	-
<b>Total</b>	<b>1467</b>	<b>358</b>

Table 3.6 Inadequacy of Buildings and Furniture in Primary Schools in Surveyed Regions (in %), 1994

ITEM	COAST	DAR	IRINGA	MORO-GORO	AVG.	NAT. AVG.
Classrooms	50	54	19	31	39	40
Staff Houses	81	95	54	75	76	77
Toilets	82	82	34	73	68	71
Desks	68	38	37	40	46	52
Tables	78	80	49	70	69	61
Chairs	78	68	54	70	68	68
Cupboards	89	82	81	86	85	74

**Table 3.7 A Profile of an Average Primary School, 1994**

Indicator	Average Number
Streams per school	10
Students per school	348
Students per classroom	73
Students per teacher	37
Students per desk	6
Teachers per school	10
Houses per school	2
Teachers per house	4
Teachers per table	2
Teachers per chair	2

**Table 3.8 Insufficiency of Instructional Materials in Percentage**

ITEM	COAST		DAR		IRINGA		MORO-GORO		OVERALL	
	NS	NA	NS	NA	NS	NA	NS	NA	NS	NA
Textbooks	93	3	70	0	88	1	76	3	80	2
Teaching guides	86	10	63	13	81	5	82	4	77	15
Reference books	86	10	70	3	80	10	76	10	76	8
Teaching aids	90	10	60	17	72	18	79	13	73	14
Access to computers	3	90	10	67	4	76	4	79	5	75
Typewriters	10	79	17	57	11	60	18	65	14	61
Scientific equipments	14	83	33	43	23	61	27	58	24	58
Domestic sci. equipments	7	90	17	60	14	68	11	72	14	68
Trades equipments	7	86	13	67	8	70	9	78	9	72

Key: NS = Not sufficient, NA = Not available

## Appendix 18

Table 3.11 Sources of Funds by Ownership of Schools (in Percentage)

Source	Government		Private		Religious		Community	
	Cur- rent	Desi- red	Cur- rent	Desi- red	Cur- rent	Desi- red	Cur- rent	Desi- red
Government	90	65	0	22	* 35	* 49	+ 35	+ 45
Parents	4	15	96	65	58	23	46	39
Donations	2	10	3	9	3	17	13	5
Self Help Schemes	4	10	1	4	4	11	6	11
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

\* includes subsidies from the owners i.e. religious organisations

+ Includes subsidies from the owners i.e. Parents Organisation

## Appendix 19

Table 3.12 Financing of Various Cost Items

No.	Item	GOVT %		PARENTS %		LOCAL COMMUNITY %		LOCAL AUTHORITIES %	
		HS	HH	HS	HH	HS	HH	HS	HH
1	School Fees	56	55	28	33	5	-	11	12
2	Uniforms	-	-	100	100	-	-	-	-
3	Contributions e.g UPE	37	46	48	46	5	-	10	8
4	School Materials	73	80	10	5	5	-	12	15
5	Books and stationery	76	78	5	11	5	-	14	11
6	Staff salaries	100	100	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	Boarding costs	87	70	13	20	-	-	-	10
8	Transport to school	62	50	38	50	-	-	-	-
9	Examination fees	91	77	9	23	-	-	-	-
10	Maintenance of infrastructure	50	54	20	10	10	10	20	26
11	Administrative costs	85	85	-	-	-	-	15	15

HS Heads of Schools HH Households

**Table 3.14:SELECTED GDP FIGURES FOR SELECTED REGIONS**  
**(in million Tshs. at 1976 prices)**

REGION	1993	1992	1991	1990	1989
Coast	23073	22116	24248	20003	5043
Dar es Salaam	88629	86516	75024	66156	34383
Iringa	70621	43089	46623	35123	17237
Morogoro	34150	26489	33821	26794	9464





**THE IMPACT OF COST-SHARING  
IN EDUCATION:**

**A STUDY IN FINANCING AND DELIVERY  
OF EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA**

**A RESEARCH REPORT PRESENTED TO  
ESAURP, DAR ES SALAAM  
AUGUST 1996**

**BY**

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LUSAKA**

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## **ABSTRACT**

Like other countries within the sub-Saharan region Zambia has since the mid eighties experienced a crisis in her education system. The sources of the crisis are reduced funding levels in the midst of rising population growth and growing derived demand for education. This crisis has manifested itself in different ways that include reduction in real expenditure for education, deterioration in the quality of the teaching and learning environment, decline in the internal and external efficiency of the educational system, decline in the opportunities for education among low income groups and rural children, and increasing lack of faith in the value of education by parents and children.

Government's initial response to this crisis was to declare a policy that required parents and other beneficiaries to take a share in the cost of education. From the mid eighties, cost-sharing measures like Parent Teachers Association (PTA) levies, user-charges, boarding fees, tuition fees, income generation measures in institutions of learning and so on have been adopted to supplement government resources for education. Available evidence indicate that primary schools in particular meet their operational costs on funds from parents and not the government. With the introduction of the liberalisation in the 1990s, partnership has been added to the government's perceived policy of financing and delivering of education. Partnership involves establishment and ownership of educational institutions by other agencies be they communities, NGOs, churches, private industry, individuals etc. The goal of partnership is not to make government the sole provider of education. The policy of cost-sharing and partnership represent a major shift from the earlier policy of free education adopted after independence in 1964 and lasted until the mid eighties.

Although partnership and cost-sharing are the policy bench-mark in the financing and delivery of education, there are several factors that are not known at the moment and these include: the willingness and ability to pay for or invest in education; the affordability of education among different income groups; the

constraints in investing in education by non-governmental providers, the extent to which private resources has filled the gap left by government to mention but a few.

To answer the question, the study sought to generate both quantitative and qualitative data through diverse research methods like surveys using questionnaires, documentary analysis and in-depth personal interviews. The study focused mainly on the primary education sector with reflections on the other levels where necessary. Available evidence from all the data generated point to the following conclusions about the situation of financing and delivery of education in Zambia.

- i) government funding on education is still at very low levels. Primary schools largely depend on the money contributed by parents for general purposes funds and PTA levies for their operational costs.
- ii) per capita expenditure at the primary level is as low as \$0.10. From 1986 to 1994, the government has not been allocating any money on education materials and textbooks at the primary school levels.
- iii) capital development and supply of education materials depend to a large extent on donor support supplemented by the labour and financial contributions of local communities.
- iv) private sector investment in education is still at its lowest. There is no private university in the country for example. The combined proportion of the private primary and secondary schools is only 5% of the total number of schools in the country. The proportion of the total primary schools population in private primary school for example is less than 2%.
- v) parents have come to accept cost-sharing as a way in which education is being funded. Evidence point to their willingness to pay for education.
- vi) the ability for parents to pay for education is very low because of their low income levels which in a majority of cases is as low as \$40 per month. The items that parents found difficulties to pay for are school uniforms, school funds and PTA levies.



- vii) slightly over half of the sample of 904 parents in the study said that education should be free. Government is still perceived to be a major funding agency for education.

The study concludes that cost-sharing in education is a major problem for most families because of the low income level. To offset the difficulties experienced by low income parents in particular government should reduce the direct cost of education for children from low income families. The long term solution for addressing the delivery of education in the country is through a system of decentralisation that focuses on strengthening the capacity of education management at the district level.

## **SECTION I: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 BACKGROUND**

Zambia's education system has since the mid seventies experienced a major crisis. The manifestations of the crisis include: reduced government funding, especially for capital projects, equipment, teaching materials and maintenance; overcrowded classrooms, especially in urban primary schools; dilapidated educational facilities; unattractive conditions for teachers; poor teaching/learning materials and equipment; exodus of teachers from the educational system; and decline in the quality of education. The factors that gave rise to these conditions are broadly classified in three groups. These are: economic difficulties, population growth and structural adjustment measures.

The crisis in education outlined above emerged almost simultaneously with the decline in the government's revenue-earning capacity. Zambia's economic difficulties which surfaced in the mid-seventies, were brought about by the deterioration in her terms of trade. Two factors contributed to the deterioration in the country's terms of trade. First was the steep decline in the price of copper, the major export and the main foreign exchange earner. Second was the increases in the interest rates on foreign loans. These two factors, combined with the rise in the oil importation bill following the world oil crisis, the re-routing of the trade route from the south to the north, the devaluation of the local currency, the liberation wars in Southern Africa, and the heavy subsidies to social services and parastatals plunged the country into extreme economic difficulties.

Since the mid-1970s, Zambia's financing of development programs depended more on external borrowing. Available data indicate that the country's external debt increased by more than 1000 percent between 1970 and 1987. The increase was from 547.9 million US dollars to 5 billion US dollars. The relationship of the external debt to other aspects of the economy showed the magnitude of the economic problems. In 1970, Zambia's external debt constituted only 55.1 percent of her export. The country enjoyed a balance of trade surplus. However, by 1982

the ratio of the outstanding debt to the country's exports was 213.8 percent. The ratio of the outstanding external debt to the country's gross national product increased from 39.5 percent in 1972 to 82.7 percent in 1982. (World Bank, 1984).

The increase in external debt put Zambia in the familiar position of most less developed nations namely the rise in interest and debt service payment. Zambian total debt service rose from 96.9 million US dollar in 1975 to 372.6 million US dollars in 1984. When expressed as a ratio of the exports, the debt service constituted about 23.2 percent of the exports in 1982 compared to 11.0 percent in 1975 or 2.5 percent in 1969. (World bank 1984).

The economic difficulties Zambia faced from the mid-seventies and from which she has not yet recovered, made her a candidate for the structural adjustment program. Zambia entered into the structural adjustment program with the IMF and World Bank in 1984. Prior to that period the country followed what was commonly known as economic stabilization program. Since the economic rationale of both programs, was that productive sectors of the economy be given higher priority in investment, the 1980s witnessed major cuts in the expenditure going to education.

The decline in government financial support to education has taken place in the midst of rising population and urbanization. Zambia's population has been one of the fastest growing in Africa. Between 1969 and 1980, the population increased by 40 percent. The average annual growth rate between 1969 and 1980 was 3.1 percent compared to the growth rate of 2.5 percent between 1963 and 1969. The high population growth rates signified more school places for the ever increasing child population. The increase in child population that had to be absorbed in schools was, however, not evenly distributed between the urban and rural areas. From 1969 to 1980 the average annual rural population growth-rate was 1.1 percent and that of urban areas population was 5.8 percent. The average annual population growth rate in rural areas was 3.7 percent. (Central Statistics Office 1990). These figures indicated that urban areas have generally tended to be

overcrowded with more school age children. Zambia's rising population distribution was never anticipated to cause major problems that would drastically affect educational provision.

The constraints in the country's development since the mid 1970s created the problems in education stated earlier in this section. Classrooms, especially in urban areas became overcrowded. In most of the major cities, an increasing number of seven year old children has not been able to find places in Grade 1. School facilities (including books, desks, etc) in most government schools have tended to be over utilized, resulting in dilapidation. Measures like double and triple sessions which were adopted in response to the higher school-age population especially in urban areas created short contact hours for learning. The increase in big numbers of children that teachers had to contend with in classrooms reduced their attention to individual children's learning needs. These problems contributed to loss of faith individuals had in the internal efficiency of the government-dominated educational provision system. The government itself saved on its "face" by declaring the "The responsibility for the education of children rests primarily with parents and its they who must ultimately provide the necessary resources for education". (G.R.Z 1987). This was a statement of cost sharing and cost shifting. Significant costs of education have indeed continuously come to be borne by parents since the eighties.

The background outlined above indicate that there has been a significant shift in the financing and delivery of education in Zambia. The policy of state dominated free education practised after independence has given way to an education financing and delivery system in which the beneficiaries, donors, private sector and communities are participating agencies.

Since the eighties a significant reform that has slowly but steadily engulfed educational provision in Zambia is COST-SHARING.

The objective of cost-sharing is for communities, NGOs, donors, churches, private industry and individuals to share in the cost of education. Organisations, individuals and communities are free to establish schools and other educational institutions following their own philosophies. Under cost-sharing, various schemes have been established namely, student loans for students in tertiary institutions, boarding fees, user-charges at all levels of the educational system, PTA levies on school projects, and requests for income generating projects in tertiary institutions to supplement government resources. While partnership and cost-sharing are the ruling bench-mark for financing and delivery of education in the country little is currently known about its impact:

- i) on the willingness and ability of individuals, families, communities and other agencies to pay for or invest in education.
- ii) on access, equity, affordability, and interest in education among the low income groups. In particular, it is not clear how issues related to access, equity, affordability and sustainability are to be handled.
- iii) on the delivery of education especially the capacity to manage the system, the morale and commitment of teachers, the availability of textbooks and education materials and so on.

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

The reduction in government support to education created a vacuum which had to be filled from elsewhere. Since the eighties, it should be admitted, education like health, has depended more on cost-sharing for its development. The burden of meeting the cost of education has and continues to be borne more by parents through both direct and indirect measures like user charges, school fees, student loans, contribution to school projects established by Parent Teachers Associations, and supply of educational requisites. At the same time, communities, donors,

churches, private industry and individuals are being called upon to invest their resources in education.

This study sought to answer the following question: WHAT IS THE IMPACT OF COST-SHARING IN EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA ON THE BENEFICIARIES AND PROVIDERS? Answers to this question were sought through assessment of (i) the parents' willingness and ability to pay for education; (ii) the impact cost-sharing has had on the delivery of education; (iii) the extent to which private resources has filled the gap left by reduced government funding to education. From the data generated, the study sought to arrive at possible policy options for the financing and delivery of education in the country.

The beneficiaries include the educational institutions, the parents, students and the communities. The providers are all the agencies involved in educational provision namely the government, local communities, NGOs, private industry, donors, churches etc.

### **1.3 STUDY OBJECTIVES**

The main objectives of this study were:

- i) to identify the impact of cost-sharing on households especially the willingness and ability of parents to pay for the education of their children.
- ii) to identify the ratio in financing of education between the government and other partners in education like the local communities, donors and private agencies that are providers of education.
- iii) to explore whether there were any other alternative ways of financing education other than partnership and cost-sharing
- iv) to find out the extent to which the private sector was willing to invest in education and the perceived constraints.
- v) to assess the impact of cost-sharing on children from the low income families.

- vi) to investigate into the impact of partnership on the quality of the teaching and learning environment

#### **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This study addressed the following questions:

- i) to what extent the parents are willing and able to pay for the education of their children?
- ii) what proportion of the education costs are met by the government, the communities, the donors and others agencies?
- iii) are there any perceived alternatives to partnership and cost-sharing in the financing of education?
- iv) to what extent are private investors willing to invest in education and what are the constraints that block the tapping of private resources into education?
- v) what is the impact of cost-sharing on children from low income families?
- vi) in which ways has partnership and cost-sharing affected the delivery of education as measured in terms of availability of education materials, quality of teachers, management of the educational system, state of the classroom, morale of teachers etc?

#### **1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The impact of cost-sharing on the beneficiaries and providers of education in Zambia has not yet been closely studied. This is a pioneer study whose findings will be of significant importance to policy makers and researchers in education. On the part of policy makers, the study aims at generating data that will assess the impact of the current government policy on cost-sharing in education especially among low income families. The findings and recommendations arising from the study it is hoped, will attract the attention and possible action of policy makers. Researchers will find the study a useful addition to existing knowledge on cost-

sharing in education. Additionally, the findings of the study will hopefully raise new areas for further research.



## **SECTION 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

Zambia, like other countries in sub-Saharan Africa followed a policy of free education from independence in 1964 until the mid eighties when the policy changed towards cost-sharing. The policy of free education was established in Zambia because of a number of factors.

First, free education was justified on account of the grave manpower shortage. At independence in 1964, the country had only one hundred individuals with university graduates and one thousand two hundred high school certificates (U.S.E.C.A./F.A.O., 1964, Mwanakatwe 1974, and Sanyal et.al., 1976). The picture is sad when it is mentioned that among the African population at large there were only two medical doctors, one engineer, three lawyers, no architect, no town planner, and no economist serving either government or private enterprise in that capacity and only thirty three graduate teachers (U.N.I.P., 1962). In the whole government service there were only twenty-five Africans in the senior administrative positions and four in the professional posts (Sanyal et.al., 1976). The major constraints on Zambia's economic and social development has been the prolonged scarcity of skilled manpower especially technicians in all sectors and the lack of technical knowledge and scientific thought (Koloko, 1976).

The second reason why the Zambian government has had to follow a free education policy was simply because of political considerations. The nationalists leaders used promises for free education as a tool for gaining political support within the population. After independence they had to translate promises into ideas.

The third reason why Zambia opted for and sustained a policy of free education is simply because the economy of the country up until the mid seventies was enjoying a favourable growth rate. Having been the second largest producer of copper in world, and the prices of copper having been favourable on the

international market, the country was able to sustain a system of free education during the period of economic prosperity.

Free education was accompanied by a system of centralised government education delivery. Under this system, the provision of education was considered to be the responsibility of the central government. However, like elsewhere in Africa and the developing world in general, the policy of free education has given way to a system of financing education that is based on cost-sharing.

The genesis of cost-sharing in education in less developed countries is in the review and critical analysis of the financing of higher education undertaken in the seventies and eighties.

Trends in the economic analysis of the problems of higher education in less developed countries (LCDS) has focused on cost-sharing measures in the educational systems of these countries (Mingat and Tan, 1984b, Psacharopoulos, 1977, Anderson, 1983, Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1985). The main focus of this analysis for cost-sharing is on tapping resources for education other than that which comes from government. Most recommendations include such measures as student loans, user charges, work-study programs and need-based grants.

According to analysts like Mingat and Tan (1984a) arguments for cost-sharing in higher education in LDCs have to be viewed in the context of changed economic realities. These critics have argued that the historical reasons for the heavy subsidization of higher education in most less developed countries, are no longer valid in the changed economic and social circumstances in most LDCs today. Given constraints in the public budget, the continued subsidization of higher education at existing levels implies a significant loss in the development of lower levels of education Mingat and Tan have contended. In their view, abolishing subsidies to higher education would improve equity in two ways: first it would avoid the reinforcement of the of privileges that students in higher education already have in terms of family background and future earnings potential. Second it would enable more students to share in the limited pool of public resources for

education. Finally, the case of cost-sharing is said to be supported on grounds of efficiency.

Cost-sharing measures in higher education in LDCs are advocated because the current practice of financing education which is based on heavy public subsidization is considered inequitable and inefficient. This conclusion is based on findings regarding the trends in higher education in LDCs which make the rationale for heavy public subsidization of higher education in these countries on the ground of equal access questionable. According to Anderson (1983) the problem with higher education in developing countries is that unequal percentage of places is filled by the privileged sections of the population. Some observers regard this problem of biased participation to be so serious in developing countries that in particular cases they question whatever public investments should be directed to higher education or to other purposes (Psacharopoulos, 1977).

According to Psacharopoulos free higher education in developing countries produces adverse effects like being inequitable, inefficient and that it generates unemployment. Regarding the problems of equity, he feels that the wide quest for heavy subsidy of higher education by the state in these countries on the grounds of equality of access for all citizens, in effect produces contrary results. In the case of university education, for example, Psacharopoulos contends that the competitive selection process which acts as a mechanism for selecting the entrants favours the well-to-do families, who can afford the substantial direct cost of private preparation for the university entrance examinations and the indirect cost of foregone earnings while the student is at school.

To support Psacharopoulos, a number of studies especially in Africa are available which indicate that children from better educated and wealthier parents are over-represented in universities and senior secondary schools in comparison to their proportion of the population (Bibby, 1973, Currie, 1974, Foster, 1963, Foster and Clinger, 1966, Hurd and Johnson, 1967, Oslon, 1969, Van de Berghe and Nuttney, 1969).

The conclusions that have permeated most of the discussions on financing education in developing countries can be summarized in the following arguments:

- (i) that quite a significant number of people in the LDCs still have no opportunities for even the elementary forms of education,
- (ii) that the population going without primary education in these countries is bound to increase each year given the high birth rates in these countries and the fiscal constraints to expand education,
- (iii) that while there is a need for expanding access at the basic education level, a greater percentage of public resources is being spent on the costly higher education of only a few people,
- (iv) that those with opportunities for higher education who enjoy a larger share of the public resources happen to be children coming from high income families (Anderson, 1983),
- (v) that because of the high private rate of return to higher education in these countries (Psacharopoulos, 1981) public resources are currently being used to subsidize individuals whose future income will be quite high and most of whom can pay for it now or at a later date.
- (vi) that a system of free (or heavily publicly subsidised) higher education is both inequitable and inefficient.

It is observations like this which have made free education policies unpopular. The arguments have both strengthened and popularized cost-sharing in financing higher education. Education credit programs in form of student loans and user charges have become attractive policy recommendations for less developed countries.

Student loans as a method for financing higher education has had wide acceptance in the United States, Scandinavian and Latin America countries (Woodhall, 1970, Rogers, 1977). Student loan schemes are directed towards solving two main problems. The first is the difficulty of financing the expansion of higher education in the face of intense popular pressure for more provision. The second problem is the apparent social inequality in providing higher education at low private but high public expense to a small section of the community who are thereby enabled to earn in later years much greater than average incomes.

Student loans, it is contended, have the function of providing the mechanism whereby present costs can be met out of future income and this is considered to be efficient and equitable. Specific arguments for a scheme of student loans in higher education may vary from one situation to another. However, the following arguments have been generalized to all developing countries. The arguments are:

- (i) that an entirely free higher education is no longer suited to the conditions of most of these countries. The pressure under which free higher education was introduced, namely, to meet the need for qualified indigenous manpower is no longer acute as it was in the sixties and seventies for most LDCs (most colonial civil servants have now been replaced);
- (ii) that loan repayments would, in due course, yield considerable savings to the government budget. These resources saved could be used to bring about a fairer distribution of resources among the various levels of the educational system. Highlighting this point, Mingat and Tan (1984b) state that, the public resources released through a reduction in higher education subsidies would permit an increase of between 20 and 40 percent in the provision of primary school places at the current level of unit costs. Alternatively, they contended, the result would be an expansion between 35 and 75 percent in this level as a result of the reallocation of resources from higher education.

- (iii) that the current practice which tends to subsidise generously the education of students with far better prospect of future incomes is inconsistent with social justice. Social justice dictates that help be extended to the "least advantaged" members of the society, those unable to receive some form of education whatsoever.
- (iv) that student loans would not prevent any qualified students, however poor, from attending higher education. This is the equity argument which is very well articulated by McMahon (1982) who points out that a loan/grant/work-study package in financing higher education which is accompanied by a "need analysis system", is a useful system for tapping the unutilized resource of intelligent young people from low income homes;
- (v) that students who are committing a proportion of their future earnings in order to attend school will certainly be more serious about their studies than students who are 'getting a free ride' at the expense of the government. They will not only benefit in their academic studies but also in their attitudes towards the world and work (Rogers, 1972).
- (vi) that there are many who have the ability to pay, and the willingness to pay, who get a free ride when a public service is made available to all at no charge, that is the most expensive way to finance any public good (McMahon, 1984).

The student loan scheme, it should be stated, is not immune from criticism. Some of the criticisms or objections to the student loan scheme are: that such a system is not easy to implement in a developing country because of the administrative costs involved; that a number of people cannot provide satisfactory information on their ability to pay; that the already high cost of higher education might make such a scheme objectionable; that since those that have access to higher education are already the well-to-do members of these societies, such a scheme is bound to be objected to; that low incomes of graduates make the loan schemes an added

burden to the graduate; that technicalities such as interest rates might make such a scheme difficult to operate, and many others.

The criticisms notwithstanding, cost-sharing has and continues to gain ground as a mode of financing all levels of education it should be stated. In Zambia cost-sharing in education was introduced as far back as the mid eighties. The policy measures taken in this regard were that parents had to pay boarding fees, students in higher education institutions had to pay a proportion of their tuition fees, at the lower levels parents had to meet the cost of books and other educational materials including PTA levies.

Proposals for changing the system of financing education in Zambia has had to meet a lot of resistance from different quotas. Students in higher institutions demonstrated against the policy of cost-sharing. They called on the government to reconsider its policy because in their view, it contradicted the policy of free education. The arguments behind the student protests were that the move was unfair because most boarding schools were in rural areas and peasants who had children in these institutions could not afford to pay for them. Additionally the students contended that most of the parents were buying school requisites for their children in schools apart from paying the exorbitant Parent Teacher Association contributions (Times of Zambia, 5 December 1985).

It was not only students in higher educational institutions who opposed the re-introduction of fees in Zambia's boarding schools. Members of Parliament were critical. For most parliamentary back-benchers, the fees were considered a blow to parents in rural areas who had little or no source of income. Some feared that there would be corruption, favouritism and nepotism in the awarding of scholarships to children whose parents could not afford to pay fees. Other parliamentarians requested the government to reduce the fees for secondary schools so that parents could afford them. Some members of parliament challenged the government to explain how it reconciled the new measure with the policy of free education. In fact with respect to the problem of budgetary

constraints the government was facing, some members of parliament warned that even though the national economy had "collapsed", the government was still in a better position to raise funds than the poor people who were asked to pay for their children's education (Times of Zambia, December 4th, 1985).

The financial hardships the fees in boarding schools would have on parents was a subject the labour unions dwelt with. For the labour unions, the request was that the government should not have made fees in boarding schools compulsory because not everybody could afford them. According to the Zambia Congress Trade Unions, the high cost of living had become unbearable in Zambia. Making boarding schools fee-paying would deny children from less privileged families the right to education. The labour union advocated for the introduction of double streams - one-fee-paying and another free-so that children from poor families could continue with their education.

A double stream was suggested by the labour movement because in its view, education in Zambia was not free as the government claimed because parents bought school requirements for their children. That is, although the government pursued a policy of free education in reality there was nothing free in schools since parents bought all their children's educational needs (Times of Zambia, December 2nd, 1985).

The reactions to the introduced fees in Zambian schools were in principle not a rejection of the policy of private contribution to the financing of education in the country. Rather, the criticisms centred on the need for policy makers to address the existing differences between those who were able to pay and those who could not. This necessitated a realistic assessment of issues such as:

How accessible is education to different individuals and groups of individuals in Zambia? That is, who has opportunities for schools? Who is failing in school? Who does not get to school and why? Who is getting what type of and how much education? How much of the cost of education both direct and indirect, are



incurred by the student and his family? Are similar types of schools on equal footing in terms of quality of education they provide as measured in terms of those elements that are effective for learning such as size of classes, teachers' morale and commitment, teaching aids, equipment, libraries and so on?

These issues were central to the efforts of reforming the way education was financed in Zambia. For a less developed country like Zambia all these questions can be deduced to one namely: in the midst of scarce resources to finance and maintain educational institutions how can quality and innovation combined with equitable access to education be maintained? The answer to this question partly lies in taking measures like establishing need-based grants, government-guaranteed (non subsidized) loans, subsidized-rate student loans and work-study programs. Such schemes however, necessitate devising some need-analysis methods.

Financing education, it should be stated, is still highly topical. Both equity and efficiency considerations point to the need to stress the financing of expanded access to all levels of education through diverse education financing policies. The objective, however, is to arrive at how some of the burden of financing education could be taken off the budget without eliminating all government involvement, and making the whole system private which may not be desirable. The bottom-line is to find answers to the question: What kind of education financing system will not reduce the demand for education because of cost?

### **SECTION 3: METHODOLOGY**

To answer the questions posed in this study, diverse methods were employed to gather both qualitative and quantitative data. The methods included, surveys at household levels, among teachers and school heads, interviews with senior education officials, representatives of donors agencies, owners of private schools, and NGO leaders. Participatory methods like focus group discussions were used to gather discrete data that could complement the quantitative data.

#### **3.1 INDICATORS FOR MEASURING THE IMPACT OF PARTNERSHIP AND COST-COSTING**

Several indicators were identified as measure of the impact of partnership and cost-sharing in this study and they included:

- i) willingness to pay for education by parents
- ii) ability to pay for education by parents
- iii) participation ratios in education of children from different income levels
- iv) involvement in educational provision by non government agencies
- v) the effect of cost-sharing on household incomes
- vi) attitudes of parents to education
- vii) growth in the numbers of schools owned by other agencies
- viii) supply and availability of education materials in schools
- ix) proportion of children enrolled in different types of schools
- x) dropout rates since the introduction of cost-sharing measures
- xi) quality of teachers
- xii) expenditure

### 3.2 STUDY VARIABLES

Variables for the study are shown in figure 1

**Figure 1: STUDY VARIABLES**

VARIABLES
School enrolments
School age population
School attendance
Progression rates by gender
Demographic characteristics
School levels
School equipment
Examination attendance and results
Education materials like teaching aids, chalk, books etc
Classrooms
Desks supply and adequacy
Frequency of education material resources supply
Toilets conditions and adequacy
Source of water its reliability and distance to be considered
State of school buildings
Pupil-Teacher ratios
Academic and professional qualifications of teachers
Training opportunities for teachers and school heads
School-community relationships through PTAs
Teachers' conditions of service
Sources of funding
Community attitudes to education
Transparency and accountability in the use of school funds
School inspection
Communication
Relationship between education managers and teachers
Local customs and traditions
Socio-economic state of parents
Gender balance in education management positions
Gender stereotypes
Learning opportunities for out of school children
School characteristics

### **3.3 POPULATION**

Zambia has nine provinces. However, the study population was limited to two provinces namely Lusaka and Eastern. The provinces were chosen in order to provide urban and rural comparisons. Lusaka province is predominantly urban while Eastern province is predominantly rural. The population included all the teachers, school heads and family households in the two provinces.

### **3.4 SAMPLE SIZE**

Stratified random sampling method was used in this study to select the samples for teachers, school heads and head of households. Heads of households were from shanty compounds, residential areas that are officially designated as low cost, medium cost, and high cost. At the school level, data were collected from primary schools. Schools chosen for the study were randomly selected from prevailing official classifications which include: the grade of the school; gender specification i.e. whether co-educational or single sex; ownership of the school whether it is government, missionary, community, or privately owned. The random samples for the survey were: 904 heads of households, 552 teachers and 74 school heads. At the household level, the number of males was 466 (51.5%) while that of females was 438 or (48.5%).

### **3.5 TYPE OF DATA AND ITS SOURCES**

The study gathered both primary and secondary data. The sources of secondary data were from government documents, reports of donor agencies and research reports. The main focus of the secondary data was to trace such trends in education like: the resource expenditure levels from public and other sources,

participation and dropout rates across gender, expansion levels in educational institutions, per capita expenditure on education, among others.

### **3.6 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS**

Data were collected through questionnaires for teachers, households and schools heads. At household levels and among teachers, focus group discussions were employed to gather qualitative data. Interview were also used to gather data among donors, policy makers and various professionals with extensive knowledge on education. The data were analysed using the SPSS drawing mainly descriptive statistics.

## **SECTION 4. STUDY FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

This section presents the data from the survey and other methods employed in the study. The data are both quantitative and qualitative. It is from these data that a synthesis of the impact of cost-sharing in education will be drawn. The data will be presented in two broad areas namely:

- (i) **EMPIRICAL VIEWS ON THE FINANCING OF EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA** which will include variables like parent's willingness and ability to pay, parents' attitudes to cost-sharing, how education should be paid for, problems related to the collection of fees, impact of cost-sharing on equity and access and the involvement of other agencies in educational provision.
- (ii) **THE DELIVERY OF EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA** which included variables like: type of educational institutions, school-community relationships, pupil/teacher ratios, enrolments, education morale, education materials, education management, and parents' attitudes to education.

### **4.1 EMPIRICAL VIEWS ON THE FINANCING OF EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA**

Data on financing education in this study were collected through variables like: sources of funding for schools, parents' attitudes to cost-sharing, willingness of parents to pay for education, ability of parents to pay education, views of parents, school heads, and teachers on who should pay for various school requisites, dropout rate because of inability to pay fees, among others. The findings will be presented under some of these broad headings.

#### 4.1.1 SOURCES OF FUNDING FOR SCHOOLS

Most primary schools in Zambia rely on financial resources they generate at the school level through both Parent Teachers Associations (PTA) and general purpose school funds. Donor support does not usually come in form of cash. According to Table 1 out of 74 school heads 75.5%, said that the money used to run the schools come from PTA and general purpose funds. This was supported by the views of the Provincial Education Officers and District Education Officers who admitted that they do not get money from the Ministry of Education headquarters to run primary schools. The general running of primary schools depend on the money collected from parents. This finding is in line with what other researchers have reported before namely that the running of primary schools depend on the contribution of parents because 96% of the budget from the government is for the payment of teachers' salaries. (Kelly 1991, Kelly et.al 1986). Money from donors is mostly for capital projects like repair of school buildings, supply of educational materials and construction of schools. Local government play little role in financing education in Zambia it should be stated.

TABLE 1: SCHOOL HEAD'S RESPONSES TO THE SOURCES OF MONEY TO RUN THEIR SCHOOLS

RESPONSE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Central Government	13	17.6
School fund	22	29.7
PTA fees	34	45.9
Local government	2	2.7
Donor funding	3	4.0
Total	74	100

From the data in Table 1 most government primary schools in Zambia it would appear heavily rely on the local community for funding. Officially, children in primary schools are expected to pay \$0.40 school fund and \$0.80 general purpose

fund annually. In addition to these statutory fees, parents are levied PTA fees which vary from school to school. From the responses of school heads the range of PTA fees that pupils were expected to pay in 1996 were given as follows:

FIGURE 2: RANGE OF PTA FEES IN 1996 SELECTED SCHOOLS

\$0.40
\$3.50
\$4.60
\$5.00
\$6.20
\$9.30
\$10.00
\$20.00

The PTA fees appear to be very small. However, as it will become apparent shortly, a number of parents find it difficult to raise the fees levied by the PTAs. PTA fees are usually arrived at through the estimates of financial requirements schools need per year. Financial requirements vary from general running costs to school projects like erecting walls around the school, building classrooms or teachers' houses, drilling boreholes for water etc.

The dependence of primary school on parental funding entail that funding from government is mostly for teachers salaries. In fact 83.3% of the school heads said that the salaries of the teachers come from the government. The dependence of primary schools on communities for their running costs has created disparities in resource levels of schools. Schools in wealth communities tend to generate more funds for their operational costs than schools in poor communities. For example schools in wealth communities can afford general purpose vehicles or buses for their schools.



### **3.1.2 WILLINGNESS TO PAY FOR EDUCATION**

As things stand now, all parents with children in school are expected to pay towards the education of their children. In this study, 92.7% of the 904 heads of households agreed that they do pay towards the education of their children. The money for the pay towards the education of their children. The money for the education of children is paid for from personal incomes. From the sample, 81.5% of the parents pay for their children education directly for their incomes are paid for by an agency. In this study, the proportion children are paid for by an agency. In this study, proportion of parents whose children' education is paid for by employers is very small only 1.4%.

From data collected, cost-sharing in education in Zambia is a reality. Parents are paying for education of their children. When asked whether they favour the system of cost sharing in education 64.5% of the parents said that they favour it. When asked whether parents were willing to pay for the education of their children, 25% of them said that they were very willing while 66.7% said that they were willing. In other words, 91.5% of the parents said that they were willing to pay for the education of their children. The concept of cost sharing is, it would seem, accepted and appreciated by parents. What is yet to be established is whether parents are able to pay for education.

### **4.1.3 ABILITY TO PAY FOR EDUCATION**

Ability to pay for education seems to be an increasing problem in Zambia. Among the school heads surveyed, 95.8% admitted that parents do experience problems raising money for the education of their children. The items that parents have difficulties paying for are school uniforms, general purpose fund and PTA fees. A high proportion of the school heads 75.0% do not send away children that fail to pay the school fund and PTA fees demanded by schools. When given time, parents do eventually find the money to pay for the education of their children it was

stated by the school heads. This is why 79.2% of the school heads agreed that parents were able to pay the fees demanded by schools. However, it should be pointed out that school uniform is no longer a requirement for going to school in Zambia. Children can choose to wear school uniform or not. Parents, especially in the urban areas have not yet accepted the idea of their children going to school without school uniforms. The long established tradition of wearing school uniforms is still upheld very strongly even in the midst of their rising cost.

The problem with paying PTA fees according to the parents was that it is usually demanded at one go. Out of 904 parents, 83.2% strongly agreed that the cost of educating their children was high while 13.5% agreed that the cost of education was high. Altogether 96.7% of the parents in the sample agreed that the cost of education was high. In terms of difficulties in raising money for the education of children, 87.3% admitted that they experienced such difficulties. Those that felt the education fees they paid affected their household incomes was 87.4% of the sample.

Indications from the data are that some parents have withdrawn their children from school on account of not being able to pay the cost of education. Among the parents, 334 or 36.9% agreed having withdrawn their children from school on account of not being able to meet the cost. When asked whether they had any plans of withdrawing their children in future because of cost 299 or 33.9% said yes. The data from the teachers survey, show that 71.7% of the teachers were aware of children that have left school on account of not being able to meet its cost. The major factors that contributed to children dropping out of school were: the cost of school uniforms, the cost of school fund and PTA fees, the cost of transport to school and long distance from home to school.

From the survey, 76.8% of the teachers agreed or strongly agreed that school uniform was a major factor that contributed to children dropping out of school. The cost of transport to school and long distance from home to school were considered by 73.2% and 75.6% of the teachers as factors that contribute to the

children dropping out of school. Schools have no financial assistance schemes to assist needy children. This was expressed by 95.8% of the school heads that said that their schools had no financial assistance schemes.

Parents with more than one child in school tend to have difficulties raising money levied by PTAs. The suggestions from parents were that PTA fees should be paid once per year and that it should be paid per family and not per child as the situation is now. Attaching payment of PTA fees to the family, it was noted, would ease the burden of parents with many children in school. At the same time, parents suggested that PTA fees should only be paid to one institution. That is, a child transferring from one school to another should not pay PTA fees in the school where he is going to as long as there is evidence that such fees have been paid to the school he has transferred from.

The major reason why parents have difficulties raising money to meet the cost of their children's education is due to low incomes. Out of 904 parents surveyed, 382 or 42.3% said that their monthly incomes were less than 40\$. The proportion of parents with income levels between \$40 - \$80 was 33%. In other words, 75.3% of the respondents in this survey were earning income levels below \$80 per month. The total household incomes were not better. Parents with total household monthly income below \$40 was 34.8% of the sample while 32.5% said their monthly household income was between \$40-\$80. The income levels for most households are very low. The incomes cannot sustain the household sizes which 77.6% of the parents said ranged between 4 to 10 persons. Cost-sharing in education in Zambia is therefore taking place in the midst of poverty. Although parents express willingness to pay for education this is done under great difficulties because they are a squeeze on the meagre incomes. This is why parents feel that the government should still shoulder a major part of the cost of education.

#### **4.1.4 WHO SHOULD PAY FOR EDUCATION**

All the respondents, school heads, parents, and teachers were asked to express their views on who should pay for education. Variable like payments for the cost of school fees, teachers' salaries, school uniforms, textbooks, education facilities like desks, chairs, tables, construction of school buildings and repair of school buildings were used as indicators.

##### **4.1.4.1 PARENTS' VIEWS ON WHO SHOULD PAY FOR EDUCATION**

When parents were asked whether education in Zambia should be free, 43.6% said it should not while 56.4% agreed that it should. In other words, while a sizeable proportion of the Zambian population now believe that government alone cannot provide social services like education, the majority of people as evident from this sample believe that government should bear the cost of education. Teachers' salaries were considered by parents as government and parental responsibility respectively. Teachers' salaries were considered by 95.9% of the parents as costs that government should pay for. The logic of this proposition lies in the fact that government is at the moment the biggest employer of teachers in the country. School uniforms on the other hand were considered by 91.0% of the parents as a parental responsibility. The rest of the costs of education were considered shared costs with other partners like donors, churches NOGs and the communities.

The construction of school buildings, repair of school buildings, procurement of desks, chairs, tables and textbooks, parents felt should be done jointly among the central government, local government, community, religious agencies, NGOs, Donors and parents. Repair of school buildings was the only activity parents felt should have less central government involvement but more of community responsibility. Government was however regarded by parents as key in undertaking other activities. For example, 77.8% of the parents felt that government should pay for the construction of school buildings. On the other,

71.5% of the parents thought that government should pay for the procurement of desks, chairs and tables for school. The government was considered by 68.1% of the parents as having an important role to play in procurement of textbooks. These ratings indicate that although parents accept the principle of cost-sharing, they still consider government as key player in educational provision.

The views expressed by parents was that compared to any other agency, government had a far higher potential of mobilizing resources for education through, taxes, borrowing from other institutions local or international, budgetary allocations and grants from other countries, Cost-sharing is not an abrogation by government of its responsibility over education it can be concluded. Parents still feel that government should still bear a big share of the cost of financing education. Parents are of the view that their low incomes cannot bear both the cost of education and meet the need for daily survival of their families. In other words, the will to pay for education is there among parents but poverty is a hinderance to the realisation of that will.

#### **4.1.4.2 SCHOOL HEADS AND TEACHERS VIEWS ON WHO SHOULD PAY FOR EDUCATION**

The views of school heads on the distribution of the costs of educational provision among different parents are almost similar to those of the parents. On the construction of school buildings 79.2% of the school heads felt that it should be government responsibility shared with the community and donors. On the procurement of education materials, 75.0% said that it should be done by the government. On the repair of school buildings, 54.2% of the school heads thought that it should be done by government while 41.7% said that the communities should also take part.

Teachers on the other hand viewed the task of meeting the cost of education as an evenly shared responsibility. When asked who they thought should pay for

education the majority said that it was a responsibility for all partners namely the government, parents, donors and the community. Table 2 below gives the teachers' response.

Table 2: TEACHERS' RESPONSES ON WHO SHOULD PAY FOR EDUCATION

RESPONSIBLE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
the government	201	36.4
the parents	110	19.9
the community	12	2.2
the donors	2	0.4
all of the above	227	41.1
Total	552	100

Teachers have a more liberal outlook to educational provision. The stance taken by teachers on who should pay for supply and repair of desks, maintenance of school buildings, supply of textbooks was on the basis of shared responsibility without monopoly by the government see Table 3 on the teachers' views about who should meet the cost of textbooks as an example:

Table 3: TEACHERS' RESPONSES ON WHO SHOULD MEET THE COST OF TEXTBOOKS IN SCHOOLS

RESPONSIBLE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
central government	208	37.7
local government	44	8.0
community	14	2.5
religious agency	10	1.8
NGOs	10	1.8
donors	212	38.4
others	54	9.7
Total	552	100

The position of teachers on who should pay for education can possibly be understood from their experiences. Most of them have seen the school being rundown without education materials, desks and chairs, with broken windows and dilapidated buildings etc. They have experienced all this deterioration in the educational infrastructure while government was spectating. The agencies teachers have seen doing something about the worsening education environment are the donor agencies and the communities. This is probably why teachers are of the view that the cost of education should be a shared responsibility. On the other hand it could be argued that the teachers are more aware of the current ideology of liberalisation which call for cost sharing and that this has influenced their thinking on how social services like education should be paid for. This is area interesting ares for further research. The question is "why is it that teachers whose incomes are equally low think that education should be paid for on cost sharing basis while the low income parents think that government should bear the cost of education?"

## 4.2 THE DELIVERY OF EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA

Although the key word in educational provision both at the level of policy is COST-SHARING, the Zambian education system is still heavily owned and controlled by the government. Theoretically, the main partner in educational provision include Government Ministries, Communities, Parastatals, Private Companies, Individuals and NGOs. However the role of other agencies in educational provision is still very low. Table 4 shows the distribution of tertiary level training institutions across selected line Ministries and those run by other agencies.

Table 4: TRAINING INSTITUTIONS CONTROLLED BY GOVERNMENT AND OTHER AGENCIES

SECTOR	GRZ	PARASTATAL	PRIVATE	TOTAL
Agriculture	6	-	-	7
Education	10	4*	2	16
Science & Technology	16	1	-	17
Health	7	5	-	12
Others	-	-	15	15

\* The two private institutions in education at the tertiary level are George Benson Teacher Training College and Makeni Islamic Teachers College. The data excluded the two Universities which are autonomous.

Source: The Department of Human Resource; Establishment Division, Cabinet Office, Lusaka, 1995.

Table 4 excludes semi-autonomous institutions like the two universities. What the data in the table indicate is that the control and development of education at the tertiary level in the country is still predominantly the responsibility of the government. The private sectors have so far not come forward to establish tertiary



training institutions in sectors like Agriculture, Health, Science and Technology. This condition shows that government still dominates all areas of human capital formation in the country.

The Parastatal and Private sectors have so far only developed interest in establishing institutions in business management and secretarial courses. Such training programs, it was acknowledged by some proprietors, do not require huge initial capital to establish compared to training institutions in Agriculture, Health and Science and Technology which need big expenditure in equipment and highly trained staff. Business management related institutions are less costly to run because it is easy to find part-time lecturers from the public or the private sectors. The Parastatal and Private Sectors have not only shown lack of commitment by not establishing training institutions. Rather, they equally play very little role in supporting students at tertiary levels. The data in Table 5 for example show that the government is still the major sponsor of the students in all the programs at the University of Zambia.

TABLE 5 SPONSORSHIP OF STUDENTS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA  
1995/96 ACADEMIC YEAR

SPONSOR	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	PERCENTAGE
Government	3439	75.3
Self	827	18.1
Mining Companies	94	2.0
Others	217	4.6
Total	4567	100

Source: The University of Zambia Computer Centre Student data 1996

The participation of other agencies in educational provision is not only deficient at the tertiary level. Educational provision at primary and secondary education sectors including teachers training colleges is still dominated by the government. The number of primary schools is currently at 3,893 while secondary schools are

186. Most of these schools are government institutions with a few grant aided mission schools. The number of Basic schools is 415 and most of them are supported from community resources (see Tables 6,7 and 8).

TABLE 6 NUMBER OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS BY REGION 1995

REGION	DISTRICT	NUMBER OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS
Copperbelt	8	296
Central	6	439
Lusaka	4	186
Southern	9	589
Luanpula	5	330
Northern	10	652
Eastern	8	551
N/Western	6	315
Western	6	469
Zambia (Total)		3893

Source: Ministry of Education (Planning Unit) 1995

TABLE 7 NUMBER OF BASIC AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY REGION  
1995

REGION	BASIC*	SECONDARY	TOTAL
Copperbelt	26	37	63
Central	14	18	32
Lusaka	28	17	45
Southern	109	30	139
Luapula	22	16	38
Northern	66	14	80
Eastern	60	25	85
N/Western	48	14	61
Western	42	16	58
Total	415	186	601

\*BASIC SCHOOLS are primary schools with extensions of junior secondary classes of grade 8 and 9. Not all primary schools in a region are basic schools.

Source: Ministry of Education

Table 8 NUMBER OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS BY REGION

REGION	NUMBER	TOTAL
Lusaka	95	95
Copperbelt	67	67
Luapula	3	3
Western	5	5
N/Western	4	4
Eastern	9	9
Northern	7	7
Central	22	22
Southern	25	25
Total	237	237

Source: Ministry of Education Planning Unit

The private education sector at both the primary and secondary levels appears to be a parallel system to the public school system. The official statistics record at the Ministry of Education does not make a breakdown between private primary and secondary schools. However, the number of private schools in the country is given as 237. Private schools only constitute about 5.0% of the total number of primary and secondary schools in the country. According to the data in Table 8, most of the private schools are concentrated along the major urban areas. The slow pace at which private schools have grown so far is what has prompted the Ministry of Education to state its policy position on education as follows:

An overall objective of the national policy in education is to establish new and revitalized partnership, involving all providers of education and all levels: partnerships between the Ministry of Education and other government ministries; partnerships between the government and non-government organisations; the private sector; local communities; religious groups and families. Effective partnership involves giving attention to the role that cooperating partners can play, formulating policies to guide the partnership and establishing strategies that facilitate it (Ministry of Education 1996 p.131-132).

The partners which are not mentioned in the discussion above but which play a vital role in educational provision are Donor Agencies. Donors from bilateral and multilateral agencies have come to play a major role in education at all levels. Their activities include among others, construction of new buildings, rehabilitation of dilapidated structures, supply of education materials, vehicles and equipment, and supply of technical experts. In the Ministry of Education in particular most of the resources for capital development come from donors. At the University of Zambia, the Library has not received any financial support for procurement of books and other reading materials in the last five years. It is donors that have supported the supply of books and other reading materials to the University of Zambia Library in the last five years. The estimated proportional share of funding for education is 50% government, 44% community and 6% donors (Ministry of Education 1996). Donor funds are mostly to meet capital development projects.

In terms of actual provision of physical educational institutions, the government is still the major player even at the primary and secondary levels. From the provision point of view education in Zambia is highly dependent on the government. The Parastatal and Sector in particular including NGOs have not shown active ownership of educational institutions. The government is well aware of this condition as the following statement in the draft National Training Policy states:

Although Government and some parastatals spend some substantial funds on training which has been to the benefit of all sectors, the private sector and individuals though benefiting from trained personnel have contributed very little to this activity. (Cabinet Office Lusaka 1995).

#### **4.2.1 THE NATURE AND TYPE OF NON GOVERNMENT EDUCATION DELIVERY INSTITUTIONS**

However, despite smallness of the non-government education delivery system, a few statements can be made about its development. The origin of privately run schools has to a large extent been influenced by how they are owned. There are four categories of ownership of private schools, and these are: individually owned schools, religious agency owned schools, communally owned schools and company owned schools. With exception of schools owned by individuals, the other schools are considered by their owners to be non-profit making institutions. The claim is made because the proprietors of these schools are of the view that the objective for establishing them was not to make profit but to meet an educational need. The need was either the education of employees' children or the education of disadvantaged and needy children.

Schools owned by individuals generally started as pre-schools registered by city councils. Their transformation into primary schools came as a response both to the declining quality of education and to diminishing places at Grades 1 and 8 level in government schools. All the proprietors interviewed in this study that run

their own schools admitted that their schools developed from pre-schools through requests and encouragement from parents. The decline in the quality of education and the shortage of places in government schools were reasons that prompted parents with children in pre-schools to turn to their owners with requests to extend them into primary education institutions, offering opportunities for Grade 1. As discussed in the earlier section, Grade 1 places in Zambia's urban areas have, over the years been a major problem. Progression from pre-school into grade one in an officially recognized private school has been a source of great relief to parents. Expansion of most pre-schools into full primary schools has been gradual, depending on the availability of space and financial resources. However, some of those that have expanded into full primary schools are now big institutions enrolling over 1000 pupils with a teaching force of more than thirty teachers.

Schools established with assistance from religious agencies are another category of non government schools. The term religious 'agencies' is used here because there are different types of religious organisations involved. Christian missionary agencies, Muslims and other agencies subscribing to different religious faiths are currently managing their own educational institutions, enrolling children from different religious backgrounds. Private schools under religious agency management fall into different categories.

- (i) There are those which offer education as a charitable service.
- (ii) There are those which charge economic fees almost similar to those charged by individual proprietors.

Religious agency institutions falling under the category of charitable institutions have similar origins and location. They are located in the peri-urban areas. The children come mostly from the high density shanty compounds. The schools were established in order to provide opportunities of primary education for children who otherwise would grow up without it. The schools cater for the educational needs of disadvantaged and vulnerable children. Such children are not well catered for

in government schools. Because of the high demand for school places from the disadvantaged children, the classes in the schools tend to be as overcrowded as those in most urban government schools.

The schools do not charge fees in the true sense of the word. Parents are however expected to contribute money to meet the running of the school. Additionally, the school authorities do not insist on requirements like school uniforms or shoes as a condition for entry into class. It is not uncommon to see children without shoes or even uniforms walking to school. In most instances children who fail to pay such low termly contributions as \$0.25 are allowed by the school authorities to continue attending classes as gratis. The conditions prevailing in the schools are such that they could be described as charitable institutions for children of the disadvantaged urban families.

The second category of religious agency schools are those which happen to charge fees almost similar to those charged in individually owned schools. The only difference with individually owned schools is that fee paying religious agency schools claim to be non-profit making institutions. The claim is true and applicable to some institutions, but certainly not to all. The catholic fee paying schools appear to be more of the non-profit making category than those run by other agencies. Catholic agencies pay attention to the income levels of the parents of their pupils. Some children are considered gratis meaning that they are exempted from paying fees because their parents cannot afford to. The school authorities usually determine the income levels of parents from the enrolment forms sent to them when the children enter school. In certain instances, the school authorities and parish know the individual parents very well and are therefore in a position to identify deserving cases from such acquaintances. Other parents are considered concessionaries. This means that such parents will pay school fees but they are given certain concessions, based on their economic circumstances. If they have two or three children, one will be paid for and the rest will have education free of direct cost to the family. Such families usually pay the fees in instalments. Even fees as low as \$0.50 can be paid in instalments.

The aim is to ease the economic burden of parents. Orphans are given free education in the catholic agency schools.

Private schools run by catholic agencies on fee paying basis are closer to the communities they serve. They tend to be more of community centred schools in the sense that parents, whether rich or poor, are free to enrol their children in the schools. The other fee paying religious agency schools depend more on the parents' ability to pay as a condition for enrolling children in the schools.

Land for the establishment of primary schools by religious agencies is either acquired through the district councils or the schools are built on land owned by the church or the religious agency itself. The money for starting the schools usually come from the agency, or community self help and not by borrowing financial from institutions.

Communal owned schools are run by boards of directors or some form of community management system. Each school is unique in its own way and can only be understood in its own right.

Company owned private primary schools are of two types. There are schools established by companies operating in isolated areas for the education of their employee's children. These schools are mostly found on farms. In most cases, the schools do admit other children other than the children of the employees of the companies.

The second type of company owned schools are those established by big companies in big urban areas.

Private schools established by big business companies are a recent development in Zambia. Schools established by resources from private companies are at the moment found mostly on the Copperbelt. The origins of these schools is similar. They have originated from the need by companies to meet the educational



requirements of their employees' children, both Zambians and expatriates, locally. The alternative practised before was to send the children of employees overseas or to good schools in other countries in the Southern African region. Some international companies on the Copperbelt became concerned about sending children to other countries for primary and secondary education. The cost was considered unnecessary when education of good international quality, serving children from any part of the world, could be provided within the country. This concern among international companies like BP, TATA and Dunlop made them put resources together, to establish schools of high international standards to satisfy both the local and expatriate personnel. Judging from the views of the authorities in these schools, the ultimate goal of the company owned schools is to raise the quality of education to levels where they could even attract children from other countries in the region.

Because company owned schools aim for international reputation, they follow international curricula drawn mainly from the British educational system. Only the essential elements of the Zambian curricula are used in the schools. The schools run from reception classes to Grade VII at the primary level. The numbers are generally small. Admission into the schools is based on the performance in assessment tests. The teaching staff comprises both Zambian and expatriate teachers. The demand for places in the schools was reported to be very high.

The need to provide high quality education to children of workers was pursued by the Zambia Consolidated Copper Mines (ZCCM). ZCCM has, through its Education Trust Fund, been supporting schools on the Copperbelt, Kabwe and Lusaka since the seventies.

The general educational aim of the Mine Education Trust is to provide an excellent education for children whose parents are prepared to pay economic fees. The curriculum is Zambian but with elements of the British curriculum, especially in English, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies. The educational requisites,

including books, are mostly from overseas. Provision is made in the schools to employ specialist teachers to handle computers, and special education for handicapped and gifted children. There are specialist teachers for physical education from reception to Grade 7.

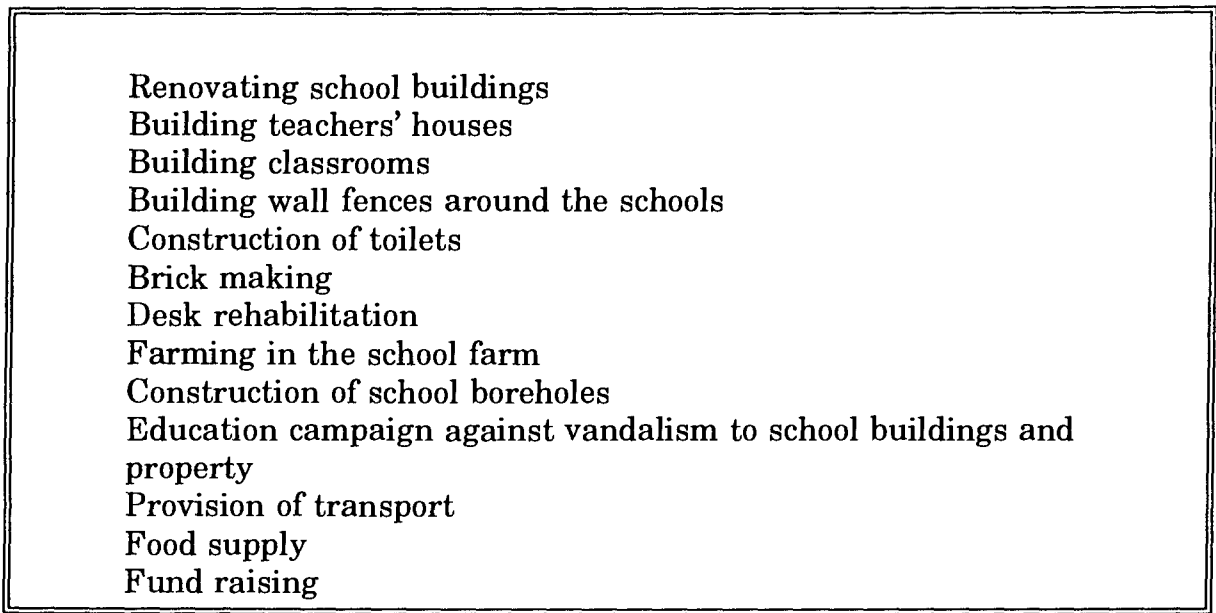
Admission into Trust Schools is not automatic. Children have to perform well in entrance assessment tests which test various skills like motor skills, language development, especially ability to converse in English, basic shape recognition, identification and number concepts, courtesy and etiquette.

The establishment of high quality schools by private companies show a willingness of the private industry to invest in education depending on their perceived need.

#### **4.2.2 SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIP**

Most schools visited indicated that the school-community relationship was very good because communities were participating in various school activities. Among the school heads, 83.3% said that the attitudes of parents to education was good. The school-community relationships was said to be good by 91.7% of the school heads. On the other hand 68.2% of the parents said that the school community relationship was good. PTAs which form as links between schools and communities were rated by 90.4% of the teachers as important and 65.4% of them said that the performance of the PTAs was good. In fact very high proportions of the teachers did indicate that PTAs in their schools were always engaged in seeking solutions to problems like student and staff welfare, capital development, education materials, resource mobilisation schools community relations and quality teaching. From the household survey questionnaire, respondents indicated a number of school activities they were engaged in through PTAs and these activities they were classified into the following categories shown in Figure 3:

Figure 3: ACTIVITIES UNDERTAKEN BY COMMUNITIES IN SCHOOLS THROUGH PTAs.



- Renovating school buildings
- Building teachers' houses
- Building classrooms
- Building wall fences around the schools
- Construction of toilets
- Brick making
- Desk rehabilitation
- Farming in the school farm
- Construction of school boreholes
- Education campaign against vandalism to school buildings and property
- Provision of transport
- Food supply
- Fund raising

School-community relationship is much stronger in the rural areas. In rural areas, schools through the PTAs assign certain responsibilities like brick making, construction of classrooms, building of teachers' houses etc to particular villages. Such responsibilities are in most cases done by the villagers. According to some PTA members interviewed, a system of assigning responsibilities to villages is the surest way in which to get work at the school done. The system ensures that villages are accountable for the work assigned to them to the PTA.

In some rural areas, communities go to the extent of asking the school heads on how they could help in the rehabilitation of school infrastructure. On the average, communities in the rural areas display very high interest in the welfare of their schools. Communities in rural areas are usually ready to render their labour to schools. The practice in the urban areas like Lusaka is for communities to support school activities through financial donations and not through labour.

There is a sharp distinction in community participation between urban and rural areas. The presence of the community in schools is more pronounced in the rural

areas than in urban areas. It was much easier for the research team to interview the PTA members in the rural areas than in the urban areas. In certain instances it was common to find members of the community working on school projects like construction of buildings.

However, not all schools enjoy good relationships with the communities. In some areas, communities do not want to participate in the rehabilitation of schools. This is partly a result of poor attitudes to education on the part of some parents in certain areas. Poor attitude to education by parent is not a universal phenomenon. In fact the rating of the attitude of parents to education by school heads was very positive. In Lusaka 87% of the school rated the attitude of parents to education as good to very good. On the other hand, 70% of the school heads in Chipata were on the view that the attitudes of parents to education was very good or good.

The 20% and 30% of school heads in Lusaka and Chipata that said that the attitude of parents to education was very poor or poor is still high. It points to the local nature of the problem. The poor attitude of parents to education was reported by teachers and school heads as being reflected in reluctance by parents to participate in school projects and lack of interest in the education of their children. The poor attitudes of parents to education was reported by teachers and school heads in certain rural areas. Poor attitude to education by parents was not reported by teachers in urban schools. The causes of the poor attitude to education was mostly given to the prevailing traditions and customs in the local communities. The reports from the urban schools were that parents had interest in the education of their children but they were constrained by poverty. Efforts employed by the school heads to improve the relationship between the school and the community included:

- i) increasing the frequency of PTA meetings
- ii) participation of teachers in community activities

- iii) organisation of open day school ceremonies to which community leaders and parents are invited
- iv) sensitization campaigns in the communities on matters affecting the learning of the child
- v) promotion of sports for both the school and the community
- vi) openness in the utilization of school funds and establishment of mechanisms that will remove suspicions over the use of funds
- vii) appeal to chiefs for community support to schools
- viii) enabling communities see the value of education by improving the quality of teaching and learning
- ix) making the school environment pleasant through rehabilitation of buildings and other infrastructures
- x) improving the conditions of teachers especially provision of better accommodation

#### **4.2.3 SUPPLY AND UTILIZATION OF TEACHING LEARNING MATERIALS**

The supply of teaching and learning materials like textbooks in Zambia is far from being satisfactory. Table 9 shows the school heads' and teachers' rating of the textbook pupil ratio in their schools.

TABLE 9 RATING OF THE TEXTBOOK/PUPIL RATIOS BY THE SCHOOL HEAD AND TEACHERS

RESPONSE	FREQUENCY			
	School heads	Percentage	Teachers	Percentage
1:1	2	2.7	59	10.7
1:2	5	6.8	112	20.3
1:3	32	43.2	174	31.5
1:5	35	47.3	207	37.6
Total	74	100	552	100

From Table 9, 47.3% of the school heads and 37.6% of the teachers rated the TEXTBOOK/PUPIL RATIO AS BEING 1:5 while 43.2% and 31.5% put the ratio at 1:3 respectively. The textbook/pupil ratio of 1:5 is very low. Zambia, like the rating of the school heads and teachers show, is still very far from achieving a textbook/pupil ratio of 1:1. Only 2.7% and 10.7% of the school heads and teachers rated the textbook/pupil as being 1:1. The textbook/pupil ratio shown in Table 9 indicate a marked improvement in the supply of education materials to schools in the country. As earlier stated, Zambia is emerging from a condition where most schools never had a single textbook for pupils. However, significant efforts have been made in recent years in the country to supply textbooks to schools. Two projects have contributed to this improvement namely the Zambia Education Materials Production (ZEMP) with funding from FINNIDA and the Education Material Production and Distribution under the World bank funded project called Zambia Education Rehabilitation Project (ZERP). This improvement was expressed by teachers. From a sample of 552, 51.4% said that the availability of education materials in their school was very good or good. However, 48.6% of the teachers still felt that the availability of education materials in the schools was still poor or very poor. The education materials supply to schools it should be stated has not yet improved in every case.

Despite of the noticeable improvements in the supply of books to schools there are inequities in the availability of the education materials as a result of the location

of the schools. Schools in Lusaka and Chipata urban and peri-urban areas are well stocked with books. It is schools in the rural areas and those that are ungraded where there is a very poor supply of textbooks. The common explanation for poor supply of books in schools in rural areas is lack of transport. Because the District Education Offices (DEO) have no vehicles at their disposal, most schools in the remote areas have to find ways of transporting education requisites needed. The following complaint from the head of one primary school in Chipata is a case in point:

The collection of books from Chipata i.e. the (DEO's Office) is done under very difficult conditions. I use my own bicycle to transport books and other education requisites which is not only inadequate but not possible during the rain season. (School head Dambe primary school 3rd October 1995).

Most school heads in rural schools complained of lack of books. The head of Mwami EFC school made the following suggestion as a way of addressing the problem:

It would be in order if the District Education Office transported books to various schools. Probably it would be better if centres within catchment areas could be created for storing books and from where schools could collect them. This would reduce transport cost and lessen the hardship of having to transport books over long distances from the DEO in Chipata (School head 4th October 1995).

Apart from the poor supply of books in some schools there is another problem surrounding teaching and learning materials in Zambia as presented by Lusaka and Chipata. This is the problem of utilization of education materials supplied to schools. Among schools with adequate textbooks, most of them do not supply them to pupils. During fieldwork for this study, it was common to find books supplied to schools by ZEMP and UNICEF locked up in the cupboards of school heads or senior teachers. The reasons given by the school authorities for not allowing pupils use the books were that:

- i) they were not sure whether there would be another supply of books in the near future;

- ii) the books would wear out quickly
- iii) the present apparent availability of book was a gesture of good will from donors which might not last for a long time;
- iv) some books from donors were not easy to use by teachers because they were not trained to use them.

It is the uncertainty about the constant future supply of books that make school heads resort to "hiding" books from pupils. The problem of utilization of books in schools emanate from poor communication between schools and the office of the DEO. For example school heads were not aware of current Government policy that textbooks are supposed to be revised every three years. That locking away books makes them obsolete and therefore irrelevant for class use after three years. The magnitude of the problem was not known by the District Education Officials. The school authorities were not conscience of the fact locking books away curtailed learning in classroom. Such action was in fact against current government policy of improving the quality of education through the rehabilitation of school infrastructure and supply of education materials.

#### **4.2.3 EDUCATION FACILITIES IN SCHOOLS**

This study did explore into the condition of such education facilities like desks, libraries, teachers' houses, toilets, water supply, storage facilities, chairs, tables, school buildings, etc. The conditions of education facilities in Zambia vary from school to school. However, there is a country wide rehabilitation of schools program in which schools are being given a new facelift through supply of desks, rehabilitation of school buildings and facilities. This exercise is not fully realized in all schools. Indications from this study are that schools have problems with education facilities. Out of the 74 school heads survey in Lusaka and Chipata, only 20.3% said that their school buildings were in very good condition. On the other hand 55.4% of the school heads said that classrooms in their schools need



a lot of repairs. At the same time 62.5% of the school head sample said that the classrooms in their school were not adequate and only 37.5% agreed that the classrooms were adequate.

Toilet facilities were rated by 75.3% of the school heads to be inadequate for the pupils. A school like Mpezeni Basic in Chipata urban had only two toilets for 1371 pupils. The housing condition of staff in the schools was indicated by 99.5% of the school heads to be inadequate. Housing for teachers is a major problem in Zambian schools especially in the urban areas. Even where housing is available, the state of the buildings is not admirable. For example out of 74 school heads, 58.3% said that the teachers' houses were in poor or very poor state.

TABLE 10 SCHOOL HEADS' RESPONSES ON THE STATE OF THEIR SCHOOL BUILDINGS

VIEW	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
In good condition	15	20.3
need small repairs	18	24.3
some classrooms are in poor state that require a lot of repairs	21	28.4
all classrooms are in poor state and require a lot of repairs	20	27.0
Total	74	100

The conditions of the school buildings and teachers' houses that require repairs are deplorable. Classes are never conducted during the rain season because of leakages. In the case of most ungraded schools in the rural areas in Lusaka and Eastern Province, the state of their buildings is so deplorable. Their existence is mainly due to the education authorities' belief in the need to encourage community participation in educational provision.

For both Lusaka and Eastern Province, the most pressing problem is vandalism of school buildings and property. From the sample of 74 schools heads, 76% acknowledged that their schools do experience vandalism. At the same time 70.9%

of the school heads and 30.6% of the teachers said that the desks in their schools were in fact not adequate. Some schools in the rural areas have no desks at all as the data from Nkhoto Primary School in Chipata in table 11 show:

TABLE 11 The Conditions of Desks at Nkhoto Primary School October 1995.

Grade	Boys	Girls	Number of Desks	Desks Required
One	23	22	None	20
Two	21	20	"	"
Three	26	22	"	"
Four	23	25	"	"
Five	20	21	"	"
Six	26	14	"	"
Seven	32	17	"	"
Total	171	141	"	20

Slightly more than half of the school heads, that is, 58.4% said that they did not have a school library. Among those that admitted having a library only a quarter 25% said that they were well stocked or very well stocked with books. Storage facilities for books is another problem in schools. The data in this study show that 60.2% of the school heads and 41.3% of the teachers admitted that the storage facilities in their schools were either poor or very poor. A major problem in Zambian schools is the supply of water. In Lusaka and Eastern Province, 70.2% of the school heads said that the condition of water supply in their schools was poor or very poor.

In rural areas, the conditions of education facilities are determined more by lack of maintenance or construction and poor supply of the facilities schools need. Most of the schools in the rural areas have dilapidated buildings. Incomplete schools are still a common sight among those schools initiated by the PTAs. Some rural schools have inadequate classrooms and lessons are conducted outside, under the trees. The key word that still describes the education institutions in Zambia is

DILAPIDATION. Most educational institutions are still rundown. Efforts to rehabilitate them have not yet made significant impact. Part of the problem is attributable to low investments in the education sector in the midst of increasing demand.

#### **4.2.4 TEACHER SUPPLY, DEVELOPMENT AND CONDITIONS OF SERVICE**

From the sample, 91.7% of the school heads in Lusaka and 80% of the school heads in Eastern Province rated their staffing situation as good or very good. In terms of teacher supply and deployment, schools in the urban areas like Lusaka have staffing problems. Equally, schools in Chipata township are over-staffed while those in the rural areas are understaffed. Most of the urban schools in Chipata have an average of two teachers per class. Another imbalance between urban and rural schools is at the level of gender. There are more female teachers in urban schools than males. A school like Mpezeni basic in Chipata urban has 44 teachers out of which 39 are females and 5 are males. Another example is Hillside primary school which has 45 teachers of whom 37 are females and 8 males. On the other hand, schools in the rural areas are mostly staffed by untrained teachers and males.

Staffing situation is both an equity and efficiency issue. Schools in the remote areas with poor facilities are generally staffed by untrained or very old retired or about to retire teachers. The situation in such schools is that teaching is often times delayed in the first term of each year because of having to wait for posting of untrained teachers. The condition of schools where there are two teachers per class reflect under-utilisation of personnel. It is an inefficient way of running schools it should be stated.

From the survey, 87.1% of the teachers had completed Grade 12 level of education. Only 12.9% said that they only reached as far as grade 9. The breakdown according to the level of education was 80.6% were primary school teachers while

19.4% were secondary school teachers. Only 7 or 1.3% of the sample said that they were untrained teachers. In fact the proportion of untrained teachers in the Zambian education system is very low. It is not more than 9% at the primary level.

From the teachers' survey, 67.2% said that the morale of teachers in their schools was very low. Almost all teachers surveyed expressed dissatisfaction with their conditions of service. The main complaints of the teachers were:

- i) Poor accommodation or lack of it in certain cases. The situation in some of the schools in rural areas is that teachers live in villages in poll and mud houses because there are no houses for them at school. Out of a sample of 552 teachers, 87.5% said that the houses of staff in their schools were not acceptable. On the hand, 89.3% of the teachers noted that the condition of the staff houses in schools were poor or very poor.
- ii) Low salaries was the major complaint of the teachers as the data in table 12 indicate. In this survey, 75.5% of the teachers who responded to the questionnaire indicated their monthly income to be between \$40 and \$60. Most of them are primary school teachers. The few teachers that earn monthly income above \$65 are in private schools where the salaries are slightly higher. The majority of the teachers 95.8% were either dissatisfied or strongly dissatisfied with their monthly incomes. In fact, 77.2% of the teachers said that their dissatisfaction with their monthly incomes does affect their commitment to work. From the data in this study, the Zambian teaching force could be described as a dissatisfied one. The morale of the teachers is low morale. Most teachers engage in other activities to supplement their low incomes. The various ways in which teachers try to supplement their low incomes are shown in Figure 4.

TABLE 12 TEACHERS MONTHLY INCOME US \$

Monthly income	Frequency	Percentage
Less than \$40	35	6.4
\$40 - \$45	214	38.8
\$46 - \$60	208	37.7
\$61 - \$65	50	9.1
more than \$60	45	8.2
Total	552	100

FIGURE 4: WAYS IN WHICH TEACHERS RAISE MONEY TO SUPPLEMENT THEIR INCOMES

ACTIVITY	FREQUENCY RESPONSES
Selling	116
Private tuition	195
Painting	3
Credits	38
Begging	33
Put wife in business	15
Depend on others	10
Backyard garden/farming	149
Business	6
Photographing	13
Carpentry	16
Refereeing games	1
No money to start business	2

Private tuition, Farming and Trading are the major activities in which teachers engage in to raise money to supplement their low incomes. Private tuition is a popular income generation activity for teachers in the urban areas. To legalise this practice, the Ministry of Education has openly declared as official policy the introduction of tuition classes called Academic Production Units (APU) where pupils pay money and teachers receive extra allowance (Ministry of Education 1996). Farming is more prevalent in the rural areas. In fact the general complaint received from parents in rural

areas was that pupils were not being adequately taught. Teachers spent most of the time on their farms instead of teaching. During fieldwork, for this study, some teachers and school heads had to be collected from their farms for interviews.

- iii) Lack of loans, advances and allowances (e.g. upset allowances and vacation leave allowances). The authorities in the Ministry of Education admitted the absence of these facilities. According to the education authorities the reason why teachers do not get loans, advances and allowances is simply that the money allocated to these facilities is not enough to go round.

#### **4.2.6 EDUCATION MANAGEMENT**

In this study, the management of education was assessed at the school district levels. The data were mostly provided by the teachers. It was assumed that the quality of education provision does to a large extent depend on the calibre of education managers. Education planning, policy articulation, community mobilization for educational development, imagination, innovation and design of relevant local level education programs, monitoring and evaluation of educational programs, etc are activities that local level education managers can undertake. Such activities can contribute to the effectiveness of educational provision in a district. The quality of educational delivery does depend on the calibre and quality of education managers.

##### **4.2.6.1 EDUCATION MANAGEMENT AT SCHOOL LEVEL**

The following variables were used to assess the education management at the school level: qualifications of school heads, education management training opportunities for the school heads, views of the teachers on the management abilities of their school heads, school heads' assessments of their own education

management training needs and the assessment of the education management needs of the school heads by the teachers.

From the responses a significant proportion of the school heads 12.5% of the primary school in the sample had only obtained Standard 6 level of formal education. Those that reached Grade 9 level of formal education were 33.3% of the sample. School heads with Grade 12 level of education constituted 54.2% of the sample. Very few school heads had Diplomas or University degrees. The point emanating from these data is that there is still a significant number of school heads in Zambia's primary school system that is still of low formal academic qualifications. Most of them have become school heads through rising in the ranks as a result of age and long teaching experience. In fact 95.8% of the school heads were between 36 and 55 years old and 50% of them had been in the education system for over 20 years.

Those school heads with less than five years experience in their positions were 50% of the sample while the other half had more than six years experience. The majority of the school heads, that is, 83.4% had been at their schools less than two years. Only 16.6% of the school heads had been at their schools for more than ten years. The horizontal movement of school heads among schools is very high it should be noted.

Out of a sample of 74 school heads, 62% have done some formal training in education management. The courses that school heads have taken are mostly those organised and funded under various donor support as earlier discussed. Out of 74 school heads, 83.3% said that courses in education management were necessary for them. Teachers rated that management ability of their school heads highly. For example, 82.4% of the teachers said that the management abilities of their school heads were good or very good. On the other hand, 92.4% of the teachers said that training in education management for their school heads was necessary or very necessary.

The data in Table 13 indicate favourable ratings of the school heads management abilities by the teachers. Part of the reason for the perceived good management abilities of the school heads could be attributed to the short education management courses for school heads that various donors are funding. In particular, it could a result of the Education Management Training (EMT) funded by the World Bank through ZERP.

From the data in Table 13, it could be stated that school heads in Zambia are making significant improvements in school management. There are improvements in managerial skills like decision making, education planning, education policy implementation, staff motivation, education resource management, human and public relations and administrative efficiency. Studies conducted earlier on school management did identify these areas as skills in which school heads were deficient (Lungwangwa et.al 1995).

TABLE 13: EVALUATION OF THE MANAGEMENT ABILITY OF THE SCHOOL HEAD BY THE TEACHERS

VARIABLE	PERCENTAGE RESPONSE			
	Very good	Good	Average	Poor
education administration	21.7	44.4	25.9	8.0
staff motivation	18.3	38.2	27.0	16.5
human and public relations	19.7	40.2	29.7	10.3
educational resource management	15.2	39.5	31.9	13.4
administrative efficiency	18.5	45.5	25.5	10.5
educational planning	15.2	43.7	28.6	12.5
education policy implementation	16.5	41.1	32.1	10.3
decision making	17.2	39.1	28.1	15.6



#### **4.2.4.2 EDUCATION MANAGEMENT AT DISTRICT LEVEL**

Unlike schools heads, teachers are not particularly happy with education management at the district level. The performance of the district inspectors of schools was rated not good by 52.6% of the teachers while 45.4% rated it good. On the other hand 44.7% of the teachers view the communication between the District Education Offices and schools as poor. This is contrary to the school heads 66.7% of whom said that they always get information from the District Education Office. Out of 552 teachers, 285 or 51.6% said the District Education Officers were ineffective in procuring education materials required by schools. Almost the same number of teachers, that is 284 or 52.4% said that the District Education Officers were not effective in maintaining quality control through inspection. On the staff training, 50.7% of the teachers thought that District Education Office was not effective. Finally, 53.6% of the teachers viewed their District Education Officials as ineffective in financial management.

From the sample of teachers, 79.2% said that the district education officials were not effective in undertaking capital development in schools.

The main reason why District Education Offices are rated poorly by teachers is simply because they all along had no budgets of their own that they could use to run their operations. For example, the District Education Office are said to be ineffective on capital development in schools because resources for capital development in schools do not come from the district education officers. Instead, capital development in schools has, in recent years, come from parents and donor agencies. The district education office contribute nothing to capital development in material terms.

The district education offices are ineffective on quality control through inspection. Again this is because of the financial commitments needed to carry-out school inspection. The district education offices do not have vehicles of their own. This makes it difficult to carry-out routine inspection of schools. Inspection of schools is not only dependent on availability of vehicles. There is need for money to meet

the cost of per diem of the inspector and driver, fuel, lubricants and maintenance. The education offices do not have such financial resources at their disposal.

However, district education officials were rated favourably by teachers on items like administration of examinations, staff discipline, staff recruitment, and curriculum development. Although administration of the examination is expensive in that it requires vehicles to deliver examination papers to schools, the district education offices usually get support from the Provincial Education Office for the exercise. This is what makes the officials effective.

The point to note from the teachers' evaluation of the education delivery by the district education officials is that their effectiveness largely depends on how well they are facilitated materially and financially. District education officials perform very well on items on which they get support and on items like staff recruitment or staff discipline that involve almost no financial expenses.

The last point that emanates from the data on education management at the district level is that the district is in very weak position as a point of education delivery. The weakness stem from lack of financial support for the district. This is however unfortunate because the district is the point of education delivery within the education bureaucracy.

## SECTION 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Arising from the data and discussion presented in the preceding sections, the following conclusions and accompanying recommendations can be made:

### 5.1 SUMMARY OF THE COMPARABLE DATA FROM STUDY FINDINGS

**Table 14 COMPARABLE DATA ON EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA**

Variable	INDICATORS
1. Do parents pay for education	1. 92.7% of the parents said that they pay for education 2. 81.5% of the parents said that they pay directly from their income
2. Difficulties in paying	1. 95.8% of the parents said that they had difficulties in paying 2. 81.7% of the teachers said children drop out because of school fund and PTA fees 3. 76.8% of the teachers said that children drop out because of not buying school uniforms
3. Willingness to pay	1. 91.5% of the parents said that they were willing to pay.
4. Whether fee can reduce the chance of education	1. 96.7% of the parents said that the cost of education was too high 2. 36.9% of the parents said that they have withdrawn their children from schools because of not being able to pay the fees 3. 33.9% of the parents said that they have plans of withdrawing their children from school in future because of the cost in fees
5. Whether in favour of cost-sharing	64.5% of the parents said that they were in favour of cost-sharing
6. Who should pay for education	43.6% of the parents said that government should not pay for education while 56.4% said that government should pay
7. Rating of school management	1. 82.4% of the teachers said that the management abilities of school heads was good 2. Teachers rated education management poorly e.g. 52.6% of the teachers rated the district inspectors of the schools poorly
8. School-community relationship	1. 83.3% of the school head said that the attitude of parents to school is good 2. 91.7% of the school heads said that the school community relationship was good
9. Teacher quality	1. Only 1.3% of the teachers were untrained 2. The proportion of untrained teachers in Zambia is very low about 9%

10.	Availability of education materials and facilities	1. 51.4% of the teachers said that the availability of education materials was good 2. 48.6% of the teachers felt that the availability of teaching materials was not good 3. The textbook/pupil ratio was put at 1:5 by 47.3% of the school heads and 37.6% of the teachers
11.	Staffing levels	85.6% of the school heads said that the staffing level was good
12.	Who should pay for specific education items	1. 77.8% of the parents said that government should pay for construction of the school buildings 2. 68.1% of parents said that government should pay textbooks 3. 95.5% of the parents said that government should pay for teachers' salaries 4. 91.0% of the parents said that parents should pay for school uniforms
13.	Problems with fee collection	95.8% of the school heads said that they had difficulties of collecting money from parents
14.	Participation levels of public and private bodies	1. Only 5% of the schools in the country are not owned by the government 2. The per capita expenditure for primary education is \$0.10 3. The share of education in the GNP is 2.9% 4. The average annual share of education in the national budget was 9% from 1985-1995
15.	Possible policy options	1. The direct cost of education emanating from PTA fees should be reduced for children from low income groups 2. The Ministry of Education should encourage community participation through decentralization of education 3. The delivery of education can be improved by targeting funding at the district education office 4. Government should adopt a system of testing for ability to pay which could be used by PTAs 5. A bursary scheme should be adopted for every need children

## 5.2 CONCLUSION

### 5.2.1 FINANCING OF EDUCATION

Zambia's educational system has not recovered from the financial constraints that beset it since the early eighties as evident from the following indicators:

- i) the proportion of the GNP going into education has remained constant at 2.9% between 1985 and 1995. This is a drop from 5.5% share of the GNP going to education experienced a decade earlier between 1974 and 1984.

- ii) the share of education in the educational budget has remained an annual average of 9% between 1985 and 1995. A drop of the earlier annual average of 12.2% witnessed between 1975 and 1984.
- iii) the per capita education expenditure at the primary level in particular show a drop from 65 US dollars in the seventies to 0.10 US dollars since the mid eighties to the present.
- iv) no government money has been going into the supply of textbooks and education materials since the mid eighties until 1995 when 2% of the primary education budget was allocated to education materials.

### **5.2.2 DELIVERY OF EDUCATION**

Because of constrained funding to education, there are observable strains in education delivery throughout the system. For example:

- i) textbooks and other educational materials as reported by school heads and teachers are not sufficient in all schools. Schools in remote rural areas are more deficient in educational materials than those in urban areas which are near the centres of supply and distribution.
- ii) education facilities like buildings, desks, toilets, teachers houses are generally still in poor state in most schools. Again the disparity between the urban and rural schools is very wide. Teachers houses and classrooms are in deplorable conditions in most rural schools. A number of schools observed in Chipata have no desks for pupils or tables and chairs for teachers.
- iii) there has not been significant expansion in school places at all levels and from junior secondary to senior secondary level has remained stagnant. The proportion of secondary school leavers that enter the university has stagnated at 5% since the mid eighties.

- iv) the district education offices have not been effective in performing their roles as points of delivery because of poor funding. Quality control through inspection, monitoring of education projects, appraisal of school heads and teachers on education policy and other developments have and still are not effectively being undertaken because of lack of funds.
- v) teachers are highly dissatisfied with their conditions of service because of very low salaries they get including poor working environments. Their morale and commitment to teaching is very low because of having to spilt their time and energy between teaching and engagement in other income generating activities like private tutoring, trading, farming etc.

#### **5.2.2.1 COMMUNITY/DONOR PARTICIPATION**

The burden of filling the financial resource gap brought about by reduced government funding is being borne by communities, parents and donors.

- i) communities and parents through their PTAs are engaged in construction of school buildings, repair of classrooms and teachers' houses, repair of desks and other educational facilities and funding of the running costs of schools through general purpose funds and PTA fees levied to parents.
- ii) donor agencies both bilateral and multilateral have supported schools through: construction of new schools, training of education planners and managers, supply and distribution of textbooks and education materials, provision of transport and equipment, and rehabilitation of rundown infrastructure.
- iii) the role taken up by donors and communities on capital development in education has left government funding to maintenance of recurrent costs especially meeting salaries of teachers and other personnel within the educational system.

### **5.2.2.2 PRIVATE INDUSTRY/NGO PARTICIPATION**

The gap left by diminishing government funding for education including recent pronouncements of extending invitations to other agencies to invest in education has not significantly resulted in the attraction of private resources from private industry, individuals, churches and NGOs.

- i) the tertiary education sector is still dominated by government both at the level of ownership of institutions and support for students. For example there is no private university in Zambia at the moment.
- ii) the proportion of private schools at both the primary and secondary levels is only 5% of the total number of schools in the country. The numbers of children enrolled in private schools is still very low namely less than 2% of the total primary school population. Because the numbers enrolled in private schools is so small these institutions have not contributed to improvements in access to educational opportunities.
- iii) the constraints to investment in education as expressed by private school proprietors include among others:
  - a) lack of teaching and learning materials. Those who can procure the education materials their prices are very prohibitive because often times such materials come from other countries.
  - b) negative rules and regulations. The Ministry of Education has not reviewed the existing education legislation. Rules and regulations related to registration, staffing, fees, finances, inspection and education materials of private school are still too strict and a hindrance to the development of private schools.
  - c) lack of funding. Unlike entrepreneurs in other sectors those in education have no access to government grants or low interest loans.

Private school proprietors have to compete with everyone else for the high interest commercial loans from the banks. Most private schools proprietors find it difficult to get the loans because of astronomical interest rates which might have negative effects on school fees. Banks are at the same time reluctant to lend for purposes of education because of the risks involved.

- d) difficulties in the acquisition of land. Private entrepreneurs in education have to compete with everybody for commercial plots. The Ministry of Education is the only organization planning authorities take into account when demarcating land for education purposes. Even in situations where the Ministry of Education continues not to develop land allocated for education purposes, such plots are not given to private entrepreneurs. In a number of cases, the land that private primary schools are situated makes their expansion extremely difficulty.
- iv) the difficulties associated with establishing a private school is what has slowed the growth of this sector in education. It also explains the nature of the existing private schools in the country, namely that they are mostly for the well to do who can afford the fees charged.
- v) the costs related to setting up schools also explains why there are very few NGOs running schools in Zambia. In fact outside churches and other religious bodies, there are hardly any NGOs that run school in the country.

#### **5.2.2.3 PARENTS WILLINGNESS AND ABILITY TO PAY**

Parents do understand and accept the principle of cost-sharing as the governing basis of financing education in the country. Most of them are willing to pay for education. However, although parents are willing to pay for education, their ability to do so is very limited because:



- i) most parents earn very low incomes which cannot even sustain their families on monthly basis. Unemployment, retrenchments, and the drought situation have all combined to reduce the income levels of most families in the country resulting in conclusions that 73% of the Zambian population live below the poverty level.
- ii) the combined effect of inflation, liberalization and reduced funding for education has made the cost of education so high that most parents are of the view that their capacity to manage schools is very low.
- iii) in some instances low income parents are being forced to withdraw their children from school because they can't afford \$1.00 required by law as general purpose fund for every school.
- iv) although the principle of cost-sharing in financing and delivery of education is accepted, parents still strongly think that government should play a major role in such areas as paying teachers' salaries, construction of schools, procurement and supply of education materials etc.

This study was undertaken in order to answer the following question: WHAT IS THE IMPACT OF COST-SHARING IN EDUCATION ON THE BENEFICIARIES AND PROVIDERS?

The answer to the question can be put in the following words: "the will to pay for education on the part of parents is there but the means to do so are very limited".

Poverty is a major obstacle to effective partnership and partnership on the part of the ordinary parent. On the other hand, the high costs of investing in education is another major obstacle to effective cost-sharing for educational provision between government and other agencies like industry, churches, NGOs and individuals.

## **5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.3.1 GENERAL CONSIDERATION**

Given the understanding that Zambia's educational system has and continues to experience major crisis that are manifested in: reduced government spending especially on capital projects, equipment, teaching materials and maintenance of facilities; unattractive conditions of service for teachers; deterioration in the teaching and learning environment; scarcity of teaching and learning materials and equipment; exodus of teachers from the educational system to other countries; decline in the quality of education; and lack of faith in the value of education among families and individuals; recommendations for improvement should pay attention to broad principles of vision for educational development for a changing society. The vision should encompass a number of considerations.

First, the volume of work involved in the provision is beyond the capacity of any one institution. Education it should be understood is not a cheap industry. The costs involved in providing quality education are not minimal. No institution acting alone can manage to meet the rising costs because of increases in salaries, building materials and books. The immensity of work involved in education entails that the prime mover for the development of education should involve others. The World Declaration on Education For All calls this broader participation in educational provision a Partnership. It involves the government, churches, non government organisations, communities and private industry. Opening up participation in educational provision to other agencies lessens the burden on the government. It also broadens access. Additionally, it could improve the efficiency of the educational system.

Second, education is an investment in human capital. It is an instrument for national development, for technological breakthrough and for going ahead into the future. Being an important sector to development, its provision should not be limited to any institution. All agencies and individuals with the means and capacity to invest in human potential development should do so. The results of such investments will eventually be for the good of all. Education is a merit good

which ultimately end up being a public good. As such it should have many stakeholders.

Third, the principle of primary education as a human right demand that parents and communities be empowered to see the value of this level of education for their children and that they should strive to improve its provision. Community empowerment in education provision entail decentralization of education to the grassroots. Decentralization of educational provision involves sharing the ownership, funding, management, and curriculum development. Decentralization involves community participation. It is a devolution of power and control over education into communities whose resources in form of money, expertise, labour and wisdom would be lost if government maintains monopoly over education. Decentralization can help increase efficiency, equity, effectiveness, commitment and community involvement.

Fourth, education development like that of society is not a homogenous process. Education is good when it is able to respond to the complexes in society's development. Diversity in ownership and control over education by other agencies creates the flexibilities of establishing educational philosophies which respond to different interests, tastes and values. Allowing diverse partners in educational provision creates a diverse and richer educational enterprise and the society which is slowly getting heterogenous. Diversity in the educational system creates competition in various aspects of education and in the long term this might be good for the teaching profession and the quality of education.

Fifth, the pressure of economic and demographic constraints make education provision by the government alone burdensome. These two factors call for tapping the resources in private possession into education through cost-sharing, cost-shifting or direct ownership of educational institutions by other agencies.

These broad principles constitute the framework within which to view the problems in financing and delivery of education in Zambia that have been discussed in this report. What is needed for Zambia is to view problems in the

financing and delivery of education in long term perspective as an effort to change the system of educational provision that is not wholly dependent on government control and support.

### **5.3.2 GENERAL RECOMMENDATION**

The current problems the country is facing in the financing and delivery of education require planned change of the entire system of educational provision in the country. Education authorities should have a long term view of the direction that involves different agents like parents, communities, NGOs, Donors, Churches, Private industry etc. What is needed is a broader vision of educational development for a democratic society. It is this vision that should address issues such as: How is power and control over education to be shared? Who should participate in educational provision and how? What role should government play in education in the midst of other providers. How and who should provide for the education of the poor and other disadvantaged groups? How will the right of all individuals to primary education to be protected and ensured.

### **5.3.3 SPECIFIC RECOMMENDATIONS**

Given the high poverty levels of families and the low levels of resources from private industry into education cost-sharing should in fact be rushed viewed by government as a long term goal. It should not be rushed because doing so will entail inflicting hardships on families that are already constraints financially. There is one major task that the government has to take in the long term goal of implementing partnership and cost-sharing schemes. This involves policy guidelines and implementation strategies for it.

Zambia like a number of other countries has embarked on the road to cost-sharing without any guiding policies and implementation strategies for it. This mode of financing education has come as part of liberalization with very little careful planning for it. Individuals, families, and institutions are being called upon to

share the cost of education without, for example, careful attention to how this is to be done; what proportion of the cost of education can realistically be met by them, what is to be done to those individuals that are unable to pay for education or how to identify individuals that cannot afford to pay for education.

The problems that parents experience with paying for PTA fees emanate from the expectation that everybody should pay for education regardless of the difficulties of affordability on the part of individual families. No consideration has so far been given to how cost-sharing is to be implemented at different levels of the educational system. For example, is cost-sharing at primary level necessary when this level of education is supposed to be a human right for every child?

To avoid the haphazard nature in which cost-sharing is being implemented the government through the Ministry of Education should develop policy guidelines and implementation strategies for it. This involves paying attention to:

- i) development of means assessment instruments which could be used to measure the ability to pay by individuals and families.
- ii) development of community based cost-sharing formulas based on ability to pay which can be used as guidelines by Education boards and PTAs to arrive at realistic fees that parents can be expected to pay.
- iiii) development of institution level cost-sharing schemes for colleges and universities that can guide the government in its allocation to them.

The level of government funding to education is extremely low in Zambia. It reflects a lack of will and commitment to education on the part of political leaders. Because of its dependence on donors the government seems to have abrogated its responsibility to educational development except the payment of teachers' salaries. The low of state government funding for education at the levels of budgetary allocations, per capita expenditure, and expenditure on teaching and learning

materials etc should be brought to the attention of political leaders by major political parties.

The state of education should be elevated higher on the political agenda and pressure be exerted by political leaders for government to increase funding level to education. There should be a nationally stipulated per capita education spending and percentage budget allocation by government that should be adhered to in every financial year. Additionally, donor aid on which the government is so much dependent now should in fact take into account the efforts government is making in raising funding to education. In particular, government should demonstrate measurable progress to funding for education materials, and expanding school places at primary level for disadvantaged children in urban and rural areas. The key word is PRESSURE on the government to spend on education which should come from all angles.

Given the general outcry about the high cost of education in Zambia among low income groups who demand that there be free education, efforts must be made to reduce the direct costs of education for such groups. Government can do this by: targeting donor and public resources to schools in low income areas for direct costs like repair of school buildings, and classroom.. The objective is to cut on demands for direct contributions to school projects by PTAs. The key word here is ensuring that primary education is a human right for every child regardless of the family economic circumstances.

Given the fact that data from secondary documents, observations, parents, interviews with education authorities, teachers and school heads indicate that education provision in the country is constrained by a combined effect of multiplicity of factors that include:

- i) poverty among parents
- ii) poor communication with schools and teachers by the district education officials
- iii) lack of teaching materials especially in peri-urban and remote rural schools
- iv) poor conditions of service for teachers that include very low salaries, lack of access to loans and allowances, lack of accommodation or very poor housing, dilapidated teaching/learning environments
- v) lack of training opportunities
- vi) inadequate funding for school from the government for running costs. Most schools have to depend on their communities for recurrent expenditure
- vii) lack of transport at the district education level which makes it difficult for the inspection and regular visits to be conducted by the district education staff
- viii) poor infrastructures in schools (classrooms and accommodation for teachers)
- ix) poor water supply and sanitary facilities in schools
- x) poor attitude to the education of girls among parents in the rural areas

Improvements in educational delivery can only be realised through long term structural re-organisation of the educational system. The Structural reforms that the educational system need are those that focus on EMPOWERMENT of the communities and CAPACITY building at the district and school levels. The problems of educational delivery are immense and they can only be realistically addressed through education structures that emphasize the important points of delivery in educational provision. The point of delivery in the Zambian context is

the DISTRICT where the education authorities interact with schools and communities to identify and seek solutions to problems that constrain educational provision. The only way that education provision can be improved at the point of delivery is through DECENTRALISATION that focuses on REPRESENTATIVE PARTICIPATION OF COMMUNITIES IN POLICY, PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATION.

A system of representative participation of communities in education development involves elevating education as an agenda for action through: (i) establishing district education management boards, (ii) division of districts into education administrative units representing given communities, (iii) allowing communities elect representatives from among themselves to represent them on the district education management boards. It is decentralisation through representative participation of communities that can realistically address problems of: Education Management; Access and Equity; Education Financing; Teacher Supply and Distribution; Education Facilities and Materials; School Community Relationships in the context of the local situation.

However, establishing a system of representative participation of communities through decentralisation of the educational system will require giving attention to:

- i) improving the education management capacity of staff at the district level. This includes the district education officers, inspectors, statisticians, and accountants. In particular, there is need to improve the knowledge and skills of education officers and statisticians in the area of education decision making, policy analysis, education planning and implementation, supervision, human relations, data collection, analysis and utilization.
- ii) the mobility of education managers at district level to supervise and inspect schools and education projects in their districts. The day to day development work in education is at the district education office. Education officers at the district level should easily travel to schools in their area.



This involves acquisition of vehicles for the district education office. Without the mobility of district education officers, very little can be accomplished in the efforts of improving educational provision.

- iii) improving the mobility and management capacity of district education managers entail targeting funding directly to the district education office. Improvements in the solutions of problems teachers and schools face can be facilitated if District Education Officers assumed direct control of money meant for teachers and other education purposes within their boundaries. The current position where the PEOs are the controlling officers of all the money for education in the Province is not only inefficient because of the bureaucratic red tapes but it makes the district education officers ineffective.
- iv) capacity building in education management at the school level. School heads do not only have low formal education but most of them lack formal training in education management. The inadequacies of school heads in education management skills requires exposing them to skills and knowledge that can improve their capacity for innovation, imagination and creativity in handling problems related to policy, planning and management of education at the local level.

In short, what Zambia needs in order to improve the financing and delivery of education is a national crusade on the value and importance of investing in education.

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